

DIGEST OF THE KINGDOM OF

the netherlands

1.5

SOCIAL ASPECTS

v. 5

Digest of the Kingdom of the Netherlands

11

DISTRIBUTED BY MIDWESTERN DIVISION
NETHERLANDS INFORMATION SERVICE
(A GOVERNMENT AGENCY OF THE NETHERLANDS)
MIDWEST DIVISION
NETHERLANDS MUSEUM
HOLLAND, MICHIGAN 49423

SOCIAL ASPECTS

Contents

	Page
SOCIAL INSURANCE	5
General – Administration – Social Insurance Council – Industrial Accidents Insurance Act of 1921 – Agricultural and Horticultural Accidents Insurance Act of 1922 – Seamen's Accidents Insurance Act of 1919 – Sickness Insurance Act – Sick-Fund Decree – Children's Allowance Act of 1939 – Children's Allowance Act for Holders of Disability, Old-Age and Orphans' Pensions, 1948 – Disability Act – Old-Age Insurance Act of 1919 – Unemployment Act – General Widows' and Orphans' Insurance Act – Old-Age Pensions.	
COMPLEMENTARY SOCIAL PROVISIONS	25
Complementary Work Provision – Complementary Benefit and Credit Provisions	
LABOUR SUPPLY	30
General – Historical Development – Organization – Vocational Guidance and Information – Technical Training – Industrialization – International Contact – Supplementary Employment.	
THE PROTECTION OF WORKERS	37
WAGE POLICY	41
EMPLOYERS' ORGANIZATIONS	44
EMPLOYEES' UNIONS	48
THE FOUNDATION OF LABOUR	52
JOINT CONSULTATIVE COMMITTEES	54
EMIGRATION	57
PUBLIC HEALTH	61
SOCIAL WORK	72
General – Development since 1940 – Organization – Social Planning and Community Organization – The Combating of Asociality in the Netherlands – Repatriates – The Amboinese – Short survey of the principal subsidy regulations in the field of social work.	
SHORT SURVEY OF THE PRINCIPAL SUBSIDY REGULATIONS IN THE FIELD OF SOCIAL WORK	82
General – Subsidization of the Carrying-out of General Social Work – Subsidization of Bodies of Collaboration in Social Work on a General or Denominational Basis – Subsidization of the Provincial Foundations for Social Work – Subsidization of Community Organization – Subsidization of Rural Welfare Work – Subsidization of Village and District Centres – Subsidization of Homemakers' and Home Help Services – Subsidization of Family Agencies – Subsidization of Specialized Family Welfare and District Work – Subsidization of Social Work for the Mentally Deficient.	
BIBLIOGRAPHY	87

980116

BOUND *Y* DEC 1966

Social Insurance

General

Since the first Industrial Accidents Insurance Act came into being in 1901 an extensive system of social insurance legislation has developed in the Netherlands.

This primarily makes provision for the financial consequences of sickness, accidents, disability, unemployment and death for certain sections of the population.

It is generally appreciated in the Netherlands that this type of insurance is a great social asset. It promotes a considerable feeling of security among the working population, it makes the economically weak less dependent on changing circumstances and it contributes to a more even distribution of the national income.

The most important laws are the Industrial Accidents Insurance Act of 1921, the Agricultural and Horticultural Accidents Insurance Act of 1922, the Seamen's Accidents Insurance Act of 1919, the Sickness Insurance Act, the Sick-Fund Decree, which is concerned with the costs of medical care, the Disability Act, the Old-Age Insurance Act of 1919, the Children's Allowance Act, the Emergency Children's Allowance Act for Self-Employed Persons of Small Means and the Unemployment Act.

The social insurance acts have so far applied to workers in general. However, the first nation-wide insurance scheme came into operation on 1 January, 1957; this was the General Old-Age Insurance Act. The General Old-Age Insurance Act will not be dealt with in this section but in the chapter on pension questions. A second nation-wide insurance scheme, the General Widows' and Orphans' Insurance Act, came into operation on 1 October, 1959.

It is the intention to set up another national insurance scheme as well, namely a children's allowance insurance scheme. Some of the Acts, such as the Sickness Insurance Act, the Sick-Fund Decree and the Unemployment Act, are only applicable to those earning under fls 8,000 per annum. Those earning more than this figure do not have to be compulsorily insured under these Acts. Other Acts, such as the Industrial Accidents Insurance Act of 1921, the Children's Allowance Act, the General Old-Age Insurance Act and the General Widows' and Orphans' Insurance Act, do not have any wage limit.

In some cases, such as the Industrial Accidents Insurance Act of 1921, the Sickness Insurance Act and the Sick-Fund Decree, it is possible to take part voluntarily. The employers are responsible for deducting the required contributions under the social insurance acts. The Unemployment Act is partly State-supported. The amount which the employers have to pay in the total contribution is higher than that of the employees.

Since 1946, the aim has been towards unification and coordination in order to simplify the financing and administration of these Acts. In 1954, the Social Insurance Coordination Act came into operation. This gave a definition of the meaning of wages on which contributions were liable. By wages is generally understood everything that is received as a result of employment. Under the heading of wages are also included bonuses, perquisites, payments from social funds and on special occasions, tips, etc. Furthermore, the maximum wage on which contributions have to be paid under the above Acts has been fixed at fls 22 per day.

For the General Old-Age Insurance Act and the General Widows' and Orphans' Insurance Act, however, this income limit has been fixed at fls 8,250 per annum.

The Coordination Act has, moreover, contributed to making the assessment of the tax on wages more in agreement with the social insurance payments. Thus, this has simplified the work of the wages departments of businesses.

Administration

The provisions concerning the administration of social insurance are principally contained in the Social Insurance Bank and Labour Boards Act of 1933 and in the Social Insurance Organization Act of 1952.

Social Insurance Bank and Labour Boards Act

The Bank has its seat at Amsterdam. Its board consists of 15 members: five members are appointed by the Minister of Social Affairs and Public Health (the Minister's representative, two experts on social insurance and two persons from nationally representative social organizations other than employers' or employees' organizations), five by the central organizations of employers and five by the central organizations of employees. The chairman is appointed by the Minister. The management of the Social Insurance Bank consists of three salaried members, who are appointed by the Board. The Social Insurance Bank is responsible for the operation of the following laws: the Disability Act, the Industrial Accidents Insurance Act of 1921, the Agricultural and Horticultural Accidents Insurance Act of 1922, insofar as the operation of this Act does not lie within the province of an occupational organization for accident insurance, the General Old-Age Insurance Act and the General Widows' and Orphans' Insurance Act.

Moreover, it supervises the Labour Boards and administers the Accident Insurance Fund, the Disability and Old-Age Insurance Fund, the Old-Age Insurance Fund and the Widows' and Orphans' Insurance Fund. The Board of the Social Insurance Bank is accountable and responsible to the Social Insurance Council.

The Labour Boards – there are 22 – consist of a chairman, three members representing the employers and three members representing the employees. Only the chairman receives a salary. The employers' members and the employees' members are appointed for three years by the Minister of Social Affairs and Public Health on the recommendation of the principal central organizations of employers and employees.

The Chairman is appointed by the Crown.

The Labour Boards cooperate in the implementation of the Disability Act, the Industrial Accidents Insurance Act of 1921, the Agricultural and Horticultural Accidents Insurance Act of 1922, insofar as this is not done by an occupational organization for accident insurance, the General Old-Age Insurance Act, the General Widows' and Orphans' Insurance Act and the Emergency Children's Allowance Act for Self-Employed Persons of Small Means. The Labour Boards are supervised by the Board of the Social Insurance Bank.

Social Insurance Organization Act

The Social Insurance Organization Act came into being on 1 January, 1953. This Act has helped

to coordinate and unify the administration to a substantial degree. Industry was divided into 25 sectors, with a residual group. A professional business association was set up in each sector for the administration of the Sickness Insurance Act, the Children's Allowance Act and the Unemployment Act. A general occupational organization was established for the residual group.

There are thus a total of 26 occupational organizations, established by one or more of the representative organizations of employers and employees. By law an employer is affiliated to that occupational organization whose activities cover the sector of the industry or profession with which he is concerned. The occupational organizations have to be officially recognized by the Minister of Social Affairs and Public Health and they may not be operated for the purpose of making a profit. The most important feature of the occupational organizations is that there is equal representation on the boards; that is to say, there is the same number of representatives of the employers as of the employees at a board meeting. The occupational organizations can administer their own affairs, but if they do not do this their administration is handled by the Joint Administration Office (GAK) at Amsterdam, which has district offices throughout the country. The employers and employees have an equal number of representatives on the GAK board. Fifteen of the occupational organizations, comprising about 60 % of the insured population, have entrusted their administration to the GAK.

Social Insurance Council

The Social Insurance Council, which has its headquarters at The Hague, supervises the operation of the Social Insurance Organization Act, the Sickness Insurance Act, the Unemployment Act, the Children's Allowance Act, the Disability Act and the Accidents Insurance Acts. It can give instructions to the bodies operating these Acts to ensure that they are correctly operated in close coordination.

This Council consists of a chairman and 30 members.

The chairman is appointed for three years by the Crown. The Minister and the central organizations of employers and employees which in the opinion of the Minister are generally recognized each appoint for three years one third of the members.

The Social Insurance Council is accountable to the Minister of Social Affairs and Public Health.

The Social Insurance Council also acts as adviser to the Minister of Social Affairs and Public Health on insurance problems of a technical nature.

The supervision of the occupational organizations, insofar as the operation of the Children's Allowance Act is concerned, is carried out in conjunction with the Children's Allowance Equalization Fund, with its headquarters at The Hague. The Board of this Fund comprises a chairman, appointed by the Minister of Social Affairs and Public Health, three members nominated by generally recognized central and other representative employers' organizations and three members nominated by generally recognized central employees' organizations.

The supervision of the occupational organizations, insofar as the operation of the Unemployment Act is concerned, is partly in the hands of the General Unemployment Fund at The Hague. The Board members of this Fund are nominated in equal numbers by the Minister of Social

Affairs and Public Health, the employers' organizations and the employees' organizations. The Agricultural and Horticultural Accidents Insurance Act of 1922 is administered by two occupational organizations, namely the occupational organization for Accident Insurance for the Agricultural Industry and the occupational organization for Accident Insurance for the Dairy Industry.

Half of the members of the board are employees, the other half are employers.

The supervision of these occupational organizations comes under the Social Insurance Council. The employers who are not members of these occupational organizations are affiliated to the Social Insurance Bank for the operation of the Act under discussion.

The Sick-Fund Decree is operated through sick funds which have been approved by the Minister of Social Affairs and Public Health. The boards of these funds are made up in various ways. Some consist only of members of the fund, others have fund members and representatives of the doctors and other co-workers. The central organization is the Sick-Fund Council at Amsterdam, which is entrusted with the supervision of the sick funds and with the management of the equalization fund into which the compulsory contributions are paid. The Sick-Fund Council consists of representatives of the Minister of Social Affairs and Public Health and of the organizations for employers, employees, sick funds, hospitals, doctors and other co-workers.

Right of appeal

The right of appeal is regulated by the Appeal Act. An appeal on a ruling arising from one of the social insurance acts, with the exception of the Seamen's Accidents Insurance Act and the Emergency Children's Allowance Act for Self-Employed Persons of Small Means, is by virtue of this Act heard by a Board of Appeal, and a higher appeal goes to the Central Board of Appeal.

Conscientious objections

A special feature of Netherlands social legislation is that exemption from the obligations under the acts is possible if one has religious objections to insurance. These objections include the case of opposition to all forms of insurance on the grounds that the calculation of chances is involved. This possibility of exemption, which of course is very carefully controlled, must be regarded as the expression of the respect which the Government has to show towards the people's freedom of conscience.

Industrial Accidents Insurance Act of 1921

This Act protects workers against the financial consequences of accidents which they suffer in the course of their duties. Those employed in a business in which compulsory insurance applies have to be insured by law. No wage limit has been fixed under this Act. Under certain conditions people other than wage-earning workers can be insured under the Act (people carrying out contract work, commercial travellers, musicians, those in the employ of professional men, apprentices who do not earn a wage and who are in training for a trade).

It should be pointed out that the type of accident under discussion is one in connection with employment. The exact meaning of what constitutes employment has been the subject of extensive legal discussion. Generally this connection is regarded as a broad one. Thus, it is considered to exist in the case of accidents occurring en route from the employee's house to the place of work and vice versa. Accidents during mealtimes are, as a rule, also included in cases where the insured person has to remain on the premises of the undertaking or at his place of duty. Occupational diseases such as poisoning by various substances, baker's eczema, silicosis, tuberculosis contracted by those connected with hospitals, etc., are treated in the same way as accidents. Physical injuries which are incurred over a short period, such as frost bite and sunstroke, etc., are also regarded as accidents.

An insured person affected by an industrial accident receives the following.

1. Medical and surgical treatment or compensation for such. Artificial aids are provided if they are needed in connection with the insured person's occupation or, in the case of a worker receiving a fixed pension as a result of total disability, whenever an artificial aid would help to improve the insured person's living conditions.
2. If the worker is unable to return to work on the third day after the accident, he receives a temporary allowance amounting to 80 % of his daily wage, dating from the day after the accident, as long as his disability lasts, but not longer than 42 days. If his disability continues, the person concerned receives:
 - a. in the event of complete unfitness to work: 80 % of his daily wage for a period of 312 days (including the period during which he received a temporary allowance) and 70 % of his daily wage on expiry of these 312 days;
 - b. in the event of partial unfitness to work: a proportional part of the percentages mentioned under a.
- If the daily wage is more than fls 22, no benefit is granted on the surplus amount.
3. An insured person affected by an industrial accident may be given a training in order to increase his capacity to work.
4. In the event of the death of an insured person as a result of an industrial accident or an occupational disease:
 - a. funeral expenses amounting to at most 30 times the daily wage of the insured person, with a maximum of fls 660;
 - b. a pension for his dependents. This pension is:
30 % of the daily wage of the deceased person for the widow;
15 % of the daily wage for each child of the insured person; (20 % if the child is an orphan);
at most 30 % for the parents of the deceased person, if he was their sole means of support (only if the widow and the children have received the full pension).

The children are entitled to a pension up to the age of 16. The total amount of the pensions to be paid to the dependents, however, may not exceed an amount of 60 % of the daily wage of the deceased. If it should exceed this amount, each pension is decreased proportionately.

The statutory accidents insurance is financed in such a way that the benefits paid in a certain year are paid out of the contributions paid in that year.

The contribution is levied in the form of a contribution in advance. After the results of the financial year are known, either the employers pay an additional contribution or a refund is made to them, as the case may be.

The amount of the contribution depends on the degree of danger of accidents in the branch of industry concerned. The contribution is paid entirely by the employer.

The Act is operated by the Social Insurance Bank and the Labour Boards. The risk of accidents is in general borne by the Accidents Fund, which is administered by the Social Insurance Bank. However, the Act contains certain provisions under which the employers is allowed on certain conditions to bear the risk himself or to transfer the risk to an accredited company or organization.

In view of the fact that the cost-of-living index has risen since World War Two, the pensions granted under this Act have been increased by allowances expressed as a certain percentage. These allowances are, generally speaking, only granted to pensioners residing in the Netherlands. They are for the account of the State.

In certain cases, employers and their wives working in the business can be voluntarily insured.

Agricultural and Horticultural Accidents Insurance Act of 1922

This Act closely resembles the Industrial Accidents Insurance Act dealt with above. It applies to undertakings in agriculture, horticulture and forestry. The amount of the contribution depends on the degree of accident risk. As for the Industrial Accidents Insurance Act of 1921, the industries are divided into risk classes, and risk figures are issued for the various types of undertakings. The contribution is paid by the employer.

The Act is operated by the occupational organization for Accident Insurance of Agricultural Workers, the occupational organization for Accident Insurance of Workers Employed in the Dairy Industry and the Social Insurance Bank.

Under this Act, too, allowances are granted in addition to the benefits, in view of the fact that the cost-of-living index has risen. These allowances too are paid by the State.

Seamen's Accidents Insurance Act of 1919

The object of this Act is to guarantee to the crews of seagoing vessels that in the event of an accident connected with their employment certain compensation will be granted to them or their dependents, as the case may be.

The entire crew of the ship, including the master and the civil staff, are covered by this Act, irrespective of their place of residence or their nationality.

The forms of compensation guaranteed by this Act comprise:

1. medical and surgical treatment;
2. in the event of a total inability to work:
a benefit amounting to 80 % of the daily pay for a period of 312 days and a benefit amounting to 70 % of the daily pay on the expiry of these 312 days. If the daily pay exceeds an amount of fls 20, no benefit is granted on the surplus amount;
3. in the event of partial inability to work:
a proportionate part of the benefits mentioned under 2;
4. in the event of the death of an insured person:

payment of the funeral expenses and benefits paid to dependents similar to those provided by the Industrial Accidents Insurance Act of 1921;

5. in the event of total loss of the equipment pertaining to the occupation as the result of a disaster that has occurred to the ship concerned: a lump-sum payment.

The benefits are regarded as part of the pay. The shipowner is, therefore, fully liable for all costs caused by accidents. However, for sailing sea-fishing vessels of at most 40 tons on the one hand and for sea-fishing vessels and other ships of at most 200 gross register tons on the other hand, the State pays 75 % or 50 % of the costs respectively.

The employer is obliged to pay the benefits by virtue of the contract of employment. However, practically all employers in the shipping and sea-fishing business are affiliated to the Maritime Risks Association in Amsterdam, which complies on behalf of the employers with all the obligations proceeding from the Act for these employers. It is possible to bear the risk oneself, but in fact only a few large shipping companies do this. Like the Maritime Risks Association, these companies are obliged to deposit with the State a sum of money or securities as a guarantee of their ability to meet their obligations.

Supervision of the operation of the Act is exercised by the State. No single master can leave a Dutch port or roadstead with his ship without being in possession of a written permit issued by the Inspector-General for Shipping. This permit is issued only when the shipowner has shown that the payment of legal compensation is sufficiently guaranteed.

If the person concerned is not satisfied with the benefit granted to him or with a decision refusing him compensation, he may submit this decision to the civil courts or to a court of arbitration.

Allowances are paid on the benefits granted, as under the Industrial Accidents Insurance Act of 1921 and the Agricultural and Horticultural Accidents Insurance Act of 1922.

Sickness Insurance Act

This Act insures workers in the service of an undertaking against the financial consequences of illness which makes them unfit to carry out their duties.

This Act also makes provision for the insurance of work-contracting parties; these are people who have entered into a private contract of employment with a public body. Most of these people have, however, withdrawn from the operation of the Sickness Insurance Act, since, as a rule, special provisions, which have been approved by the Minister of Social Affairs and Public Health, are available in the case of illness. Furthermore, various groups of people have been put on the same footing as workers under certain conditions similar to those for the Accidents Insurance Acts. Domestic staff who work at least three days a week in the service of the same employer come under the Sickness Insurance Act.

Sailors, sea-fishermen, civil servants and railway workers in permanent service are not insured under this Act. Special regulations are in force in their case. The Sickness Insurance Act has a wage limit of fls 8,000, as already stated in the introduction to this chapter. In many cases, employers have a private scheme for employees earning more than fls 8,000.

Payments under the Sickness Insurance Act are made only if the insured is registered with a sick fund recognized under the Sick-Fund Decree. This ensures that the medical treatment is efficient. The sickness benefit is 80 % of the daily wage.

If the daily wage is more than fls 22, no benefit is granted on the surplus amount. (Consequently, the statutory benefit is a maximum of 80 % of fls 22, or fls 17.60 a day.)

Sickness payment is made from the third day following the start of inability to work. There are often more favourable provisions, for instance payment up to 90 % of the daily wage and one or two waiting days. The maximum period over which sickness payment is made is 52 weeks. If, after that period, the insured is still unfit to work, he can apply for a disability pension under the Disability Act, provided that he is insured for that and can prove 150 contributions. In certain circumstances (married and supporting others) in the case of tuberculosis, payment on a voluntary basis through the occupational organizations can be extended over a maximum of three years.

Pregnancy and confinement are treated on the same basis as sickness. Payment at the rate of the full wage is made in the case of the pregnancy of the insured person for six weeks before and at least six weeks after the confinement.

Insurance ceases when the insured person leaves employment. In certain cases the worker whose compulsory insurance has stopped can insure voluntarily with the business organization. Other people can also join the voluntary insurance scheme.

The employers who are responsible for paying the contribution are permitted to deduct 1 % of that part of his wage on which the contribution is charged; the remaining part of the contribution is paid by the employer. The amount of the contribution is fixed and collected by the occupational organization to which the employer is affiliated for the insurance of the employee. The occupational organization concerned is authorized to levy the contribution in advance.

The Sickness Insurance Act is operated by accredited occupational organizations.

Sick-Fund Decree

Sick funds are private institutions through which it is possible for the individual to insure against the costs of medical and surgical treatment. These funds were in existence for a long time before they were controlled by legislation. Many of the funds were established in the previous century; some of them were founded by, or with the cooperation of, the Royal Netherland Society for the Promotion of Medicine – the doctors' professional organization. Other funds were set up by those seeking joint protection against such costs on a mutual basis. Other funds were of a different nature; for instance those started by the managements of large undertakings for their staff. The funds were designed for people with low incomes. The contributions were generally very small. The funds were and continue to be of considerable importance for the health of the population.

When the war broke out in 1940 the draft of an act was ready. In 1941 the Sick-Fund Decree was issued by the occupying power through the Secretary-General of the Ministry of Social Affairs. This decree is still in operation, though certain points have been changed.

Since 1941 the funds have been under the supervision of the Government; since 1947 the supervision has been exercised through a Sick-Fund Council, which has 36 members. There are now about 125 funds.

The Sick-Fund Decree distinguishes between those who are voluntarily and those who are compulsorily insured.

Compulsorily insured persons are, in the first place, those who are insured under the Sickness Insurance Act, including seamen. In addition there are several small groups of people, who by chance do not come under the Sickness Insurance Act, who are also compulsorily insured (for example, railway personnel). There is no compulsory insurance so far for civil servants.

Under the Sickness Insurance Act come only those people whose wage does not exceed fls 8,000 per annum; this limit also applies to the groups mentioned just above.

Moreover, the family of a person in one of the above-mentioned groups is insured free of charge. (This includes children up to the age of 16, students and invalid children up to the age of 27.) The members of the family have the right to the same treatment as the insured person himself. The sick funds do not, as a rule, make cash payments. They look after the financial side of the medical treatment and enter into agreements for this purpose with doctors, specialists, dentists, chemists, midwives, hospitals, physiotherapists, etc.

Members of a sick fund can consult a doctor whenever they wish. They do not need permission from the sick fund, provided that the doctor resides in the patient's locality and has entered into an agreement to treat patients who are members of a sick fund. Most doctors in the working area of a sick fund are registered with a fund. The insured person can decide for himself by which doctor he wants to be treated. The sick fund does not concern itself with the relation between doctor and patient. The agreements between doctors and sick funds, as far as the fees of the doctors are concerned, include payment by subscription. This means that the doctor receives from the sick fund an annual payment for each person registered with him, regardless of the number of times he is consulted. The aim is 3,000 sick fund members per doctor. The doctor now receives fls 13.76 per year for the first 2,000 patients and fls 10.12 for each patient above that figure registered with him.

The choice of specialist is limited only to the extent that a member of a sick fund can go to one only after reference through his doctor. Insured persons are also entitled to medicines; dental attention under certain conditions; obstetric attention from a midwife and, if it should be necessary, from a doctor; hospital treatment for a maximum of 70 days in each instance and an allowance towards the expenses of treatment in a sanatorium, external treatment such as by sunray lamp or massage, artificial aids and, in certain cases, ambulance costs.

The contribution amounts to 4.8 % of the wage on which the contribution is assessed. Half of the contribution, or 2.4 %, is withheld from the employee's wage. The other half is borne by the employer. There are, however, other conditions for some groups. All the above refers to compulsory insurance.

The contribution is not paid to the sick fund itself but is sent to the (central) Equalization Fund via the employees' organizations. This is under the control of the Sick-Fund Council and, from it, the expenses of the sick funds are reimbursed.

Voluntary insurance can also be carried out through a sick fund. Under certain conditions, anyone who is not compulsorily insured and whose income is not higher than fls 8,000 per year can join. Under a voluntary insurance scheme a fixed amount is paid, the amount varying with the sick fund chosen and independent of the size of the insured person's income. Both the husband and the wife have to pay contributions, but as a rule no contribution is payable in respect of children. Those who are voluntarily insured have the same rights as the compulsorily insured. The contribution is about fls 2 per week; fls 4 per family. This contribution is paid direct to the sick fund.

Separate regulations have been in force since 1 January, 1957, for the voluntary insurance of old people whose income is less than fls 3,878 per annum. They must always be admitted by a fund, even though their chances of sickness may be higher than normal. They pay a contribution which covers half or quarter of the average fee according to whether their income is more or less than fls 2,768, and which amounts to fls 1.84 or fls 0.92 per week respectively for a man and a woman. The balance is made up equally by the Equalization Fund for compulsory insurance and by the Government.

The total number of insured persons has not increased to any appreciable degree as a result of this 'Old peoples' insurance'. Approximately 8 million people are insured; this is for 1961 about 70.8 % of the population.

In addition to the compulsory, voluntary and old people's insurance there is a supplementary insurance scheme operated by the sick funds. Under this, members can for a small contribution obtain various additional benefits, chiefly a longer nursing period in hospitals.

Children's Allowance Act of 1939

The purpose of this Act is to render assistance with the costs of support and education of children.

It is applicable to all workers in the service of an undertaking and to those who in the temporary service of a public body (State, province, municipality, etc.), unless they are covered by a special children's allowance scheme. There is no wage limit.

Domestic workers are not covered by this Act.

Each worker whose family consists of one or more children or fosterchildren under the age of 16 is entitled to children's allowance. This allowance is paid out quarterly. The right to children's allowance is decided by the number of children on the first day of each quarter.

If a child is following a course of education or is preparing for an occupation, the children's allowance continues until the 27th birthday of the child, provided that the person applying for allowance contributes towards the support of the child. For invalid children between the age of 16 and 27 the right to children's allowance is also continued. By invalid children are meant those who on account of sickness or infirmity will probably be unable in the year to come to earn one third of the normal wage by performing work suited to their strength and abilities.

By special Government decree the children's allowance is also granted to natural children. The children's allowance is 75 cents per day for the first child; 82 cents per day and per child for the second and the third child; fls 1.11 per day and per child for the fourth and fifth child and fls 1.25 per day and per child for any subsequent children.

The contribution is paid by the employer. (For persons earning more than fls 22 per day the surplus is not taken into consideration when computing the contribution.) The contribution may not be deducted from the wage, either in whole or in part. The contribution is 4.9 % of that part of the wage that is taken into account for calculating the contribution.

The Children's Allowance Act is operated by the occupational organizations.

The number of children for whom employees were in receipt of children's allowance was

estimated to be 2,100,000 in 1960; in the same year the total amount of children's allowance paid was about fls 525,000,000.

Children's Allowance Act for Holders of Disability, Old-Age and Orphans' Pensions, 1948

The following categories of persons are eligible for children's allowance under this Act:

1. persons who are in receipt of a disability pension under the Disability Act;
2. widows who are receiving or, on account of the death of their husband, have received a widow's pension or a temporary widow's benefit under the General Widows' and Orphans' Act;
3. persons who are receiving an old-age pension under the General Old-Age Pensions Act, if they have children to support. These children are subject to the same conditions as the children of wage-earners.

The allowance granted under this Act is:

fls 19.75 per month for the first child;
fls 21.60 per month and per child for the second and third child;
fls 29.25 per month and per child for the fourth and fifth child;
fls 32.95 per month and per child for any subsequent children.

For this children's allowance no contribution has to be paid; the children's allowance for those in receipt of a disability pension is payable by the State, for those receiving a widow's pension it is payable by the Widows' and Orphans' Fund and for those receiving an old-age pension it is payable by the Old-Age Insurance Fund.

Operation of this Act has been entrusted to the Social Insurance Bank and the Labour Boards. The number of children for whom allowances were payable under this Act amounted to about 120,000 in 1960; in that year about fls 28,000,000 were paid out in allowances.

Emergency Children's Allowance Act for Self-Employed Persons of Small Means

The object of this Act, which entered into force on 1 July, 1951, is to grant children's allowance to self-employed persons of small means.

The Act is applicable to Netherlands nationals who reside in the Netherlands, who are not in paid employment but who practise an occupation, carry on a trade or run a business independently.

These persons are entitled to children's allowance under this Act:

- a. if their income does not exceed fls 3,500 per annum:
for the third and any subsequent children under the age of 16;
- b. if their income is more than fls 3,500 but less than fls 3,700 per annum: for the fourth child and any subsequent children under the age of 16, and so on; for instance if the income is more than fls 3,700 but less than fls 3,900 per annum: for the fifth and any subsequent children under the age of 16, etc.

Children up to the age of 27 are bracketed with children under the age of 16 if they are still attending school or a vocational training course or if they are invalids.

The children's allowance is 53 cents per day for the third child and 73 cents per day for the

fourth and any subsequent children. The right to children's allowance is determined by the number of children on the first day of each quarter.

No contribution is levied. The costs of these allowances are borne in full by the State.

The Act is operated by the Labour Boards. An appeal may be made to the Social Insurance Bank against a decision of a Labour Board. The number of children for whom an allowance was paid under this Act was about 23,000 in 1960, and the amount paid out in that year was about fls 4,700,000.

Disability Act

The Act came into full operation in 1919. It aims at insuring workers against the financial consequences of disability and old age. In addition this Act grants, under certain circumstances, pensions to widows and orphans on the death of the insured person.

Insurance is compulsory for everyone over the age of 14 who is employed in the Netherlands. Those earning more than fls 5,600 cannot be insured under this Act if they were not previously insured under it. If a compulsorily insured person's wages are raised above fls 5,600, he remains liable under the Act and he must pay contributions through his employer until his annual wage exceeds fls 8,000. Persons above the age of 35 who have not been previously insured are not liable for compulsory insurance. Those engaged in contract work and musicians are, under certain circumstances, liable for compulsory insurance. Foreigners working in the Netherlands are generally also covered by the provisions of this Act. The Act does not apply to civil servants and permanent railway-personnel.

The worker must himself apply for the disability insurance, otherwise he will not be insured. The insured person receives a contribution card to which the employer must affix stamps, the value of which varies from fls 0.25 to fls 0.60 according to the sex and age of the insured person. If the insured person is in receipt of sick pay or a payment under the Unemployment Act, the occupational organization concerned is responsible for stamping the card.

The following benefits may be granted under the Disability Act:

1. Old-age pension

Each insured person is entitled to an old-age pension upon reaching the age of 65.

Amount of the pension

The amount of the old-age pension and of the other pensions depends on the number of contributions paid and on the number of weeks during which the person concerned has been insured. In general the pensions range between 3 and 6 guilders per week. The pension begins on the first day of the month in which the insured person has attained the age of 65.

2. Disability pension

This pension is granted in the event of permanent or temporary disability. For the first 52 weeks

after the commencement of disability the insured person is not entitled to a pension under this Act, if he is entitled to sick pay under the Sickness Insurance Act. Under this Act a person is regarded as disabled, if, by reason of any disease or infirmity, he is unable, by performing work suited to his strength and abilities which in view of his training and former occupation may reasonably be entrusted to him, to earn one third of his normal wage. In order to qualify for a disability pension at least 150 weekly contributions must have been paid.

3. Widow's pension

The widow of an insured person is entitled to a pension from her sixtieth birthday onwards. If she is a permanent invalid she is entitled to this pension before reaching the age of 60. At least 40 weekly contributions must have been paid for her husband.

4. Orphan's pension

Children below the age of 16 are entitled to an orphan's pension under this Act:

- a.* after the death of their father, if he had been insured;
- b.* after the death of their uninsured father, if their mother is insured;
- c.* after the death of their mother, if she had been insured and if the children had previously lost their father or if the mother was the sole support of the family.

In these three cases at least 40 contributions must have been paid. The pension is granted to all children together who are below the age of 16. The full amount of the pension is paid out, as long as there is still one child under the age of 16. The pension is granted from the first day of the month in which the father or the mother died. (Foster-children who have been brought up in the family at the expense of the deceased for at least one year may in the cases referred to under *a.* and *c.* also be eligible for a pension.)

If the children are entitled to a pension by virtue of more than one case, the highest amount to which they are entitled will be granted. If the insured father and the insured mother have both died, the orphans are entitled to two orphan's pensions.

5. Medical treatment or nursing

The insurance under the Disability Act renders it possible that, in certain cases of disease, medical treatment and nursing is provided to avert permanent disability.

On account of the increase in the cost of living since the war, measures have been taken to increase the amount of the pensions granted under the Disability Act. This was provided for by the Act of 15 July, 1948, under which Act allowances are granted in addition to the pensions paid under the Disability Act. These allowances are payable by the State, and are:

- a.* an allowance of 290 % of the amount of the pension;
- b.* a family allowance of fls 73 per month.

These allowances are granted up to the age of 65. In general they are only granted if the pensioner is residing in the Netherlands.

This Act is operated by the Social Insurance Bank and the Labour Boards.

The law no longer comes up to present-day requirements in social insurance. The aim is therefore an entirely new Disability Act, and the Government already has the recommendations for this from the Social and Economic Council.

A separate Act applies to miners.

Old-Age Insurance Act of 1919

The Old-Age Insurance Act came into operation on 3 December, 1919, having been passed on 4 November, 1919. Insurance under this Act is not, in contrast to the Disability Act, on a compulsory basis, but is voluntary and makes provision for the financial consequences of old age. The original purpose of this Act was to make legal provision for non-employees now that provision for old age had been made for employees. These non-employees, namely self-employed persons with low incomes, were on the same footing as employees as far as their economic position was concerned.

At that time it was not considered just to bring in compulsory insurance for this group of people, and legislation thus took the form of voluntary insurance. At first, in order to assist the parties concerned, the administrative costs of this insurance were the responsibility of the Government and thus it was possible to obtain insurance at a low premium. The Act's original intention was, however, departed from at a later date. Nowadays the Old-Age Insurance Act offers to all Netherlands nationals and residents in the country, even if they are not of Netherlands nationality, the possibility of insuring, without medical examination, on a voluntary basis for an old-age pension. This pension varies from fls 3 to fls 20 per week and for widow's and widower's pensions from fls 1 to fls 10 per week. The premium is paid by the insured person himself. The Government is responsible for all payments.

Unemployment Act

In the previous century the trade unions started to set up unemployment funds for their members. After World War One it became apparent that it was no longer possible to provide for the needs of the unemployed in this manner. The Government therefore issued the Unemployment Decree, under which the State and the municipalities made an additional allowance of 100% to these trade union funds. In addition the employers brought into being arrangements for unemployment pay. This system lasted until 1940. After World War Two the Government took over the entire responsibility for the support of unemployed persons. And on 1 July, 1952, the Unemployment Act came into operation.

Persons who are insured are those earning wages and those in a similar position (musicians, commercial travellers, newspaper delivery men, etc.). Not eligible for insurance under this Act are those earning more than fls 8,000 per annum (wage limit), civil servants, domestic servants, public servants for whom an equally favourable arrangement has been made, and persons of 65 years and above.

The law differentiates between reduced-pay benefit and unemployment benefit. The amount of both payments is, however, the same, i.e. 80% of the daily wage to a maximum of fls 22 for

married men and married women supporting a family and unmarried men and unmarried women supporting a family; 70% for unmarried persons not supporting a family and who are 30 years of age or older and do not live with their parents; and 60% for all other workers.

An insured person has a right to reduced-pay benefit if, during the twelve months preceding the termination of his employment, he was employed for at least 156 days in the same section of an occupation or industry. The thought underlying this is that the link between the employee and that section of the industry to which he is attached has not yet been severed. He is, in fact, still a member of the labour reserve of the occupation or industry. Reduced-pay benefits is paid through the occupational organization for a minimum of 48 days per year. The insured person then becomes eligible for unemployment benefit for a maximum of 78 days a year. The unemployment benefit is financed by the General Unemployment Fund at The Hague, payments being handled by the occupational organizations.

An insured person is thus eligible for a benefit for a maximum of 126 days per year after the start of unemployment. A worker has a direct claim on unemployment benefit if, in the year prior to his unemployment, he has been employed for not even 156 days but for a minimum of 78 days as such within the meaning of the Act. He can receive unemployment benefit for 126 days per year.

A distinction is made between reduced-pay benefit and unemployment benefit in the financing of this Act. The contribution for reduced-pay insurance is set by the board of the occupational organization and its amount depends on the degree of unemployment in the section of the industry concerned. On 1 January, 1961, it ranged between 0.1% and 7% in the 26 branches of industry. The lowest contribution was in the mining industry and in the department stores and chain stores, the highest in the agricultural sector, as far as casual workers are concerned.

Half of the contribution for reduced-pay benefit insurance is deducted from the employee's wages by the employer and the other half is paid by the employer himself. The contribution for unemployment benefit insurance is the same for all occupations and industries. It is fixed by the Minister of Social Affairs and Public Health and can be revised at any time. Half of the contribution is paid by the Government, one quarter by the employers and one quarter by the employees. The contribution was 1.2% in 1960.

As already mentioned, the reduced-pay benefit and unemployment benefit varies between 60 and 80% of the daily wage. In fact, those in receipt of these benefits are paid more than this because they may also be eligible for payments under other social legislation. They receive children's allowance and are insured under the Sickness Insurance Act, the Sick-Fund Decree and the Disability Act.

General Widows' and Orphans' Insurance Act

This Act, which entered into force on 1 October, 1959, provides for a general compulsory widows' and orphans' insurance covering the entire population. It contains regulations concerning a widow's pension or a temporary widow's benefit and regulations concerning an orphan's pension.

All persons residing in the Netherlands who have attained the age of 15 are insured. Those who have attained the age of 65 are no longer under an obligation to pay contributions. Thus, just

like the General Old-Age Insurance Act, this Act covers the entire population. Persons who, although not residing in the Netherlands, are liable to pay income tax on account of their having rendered paid services within the Netherlands, are also insured. This means that for instance a wage-earner who lives in Belgium and works in the Netherlands is covered by this Act.

The widow of an insured person is entitled to a widow's pension:

- a. if she has a dependent child of her own under the age of 18, provided that this child was born before or on the day of the death of her husband;
- b. if she is pregnant on the day on which her husband dies;
- c. if she is disabled on the day of the death of her husband and has remained so since that day, provided that the disability lasts for at least three months;
- d. if she is 50 years of age or older on the last day of the month in which her husband dies.

If the widow receives a pension on account of the fact that she has children to support, this pension terminates as soon as she no longer has any children under the age of 18 in her household, unless in the meantime:

- a. she has become disabled;
- b. she has attained the age of 50;
- c. she has attained the age of 45 and has received a widow's pension for the last five years.

If the widow is in receipt of a widow's pension on account of the fact that she is disabled, the pension terminates as soon as she is not disabled any longer, unless in the meantime she has attained the age of 50 or if she has meanwhile attained the age of 45 and has been in receipt of a widow's pension for the last five years.

It should be observed that the widow's pension terminates in any case when the widow attains the age of 65.

If the widow does not fulfil the conditions referred to above under a-d inclusive, she is entitled to a temporary widow's benefit. In general the widow is also entitled to this benefit on termination of a widow's pension granted to her for a certain period. The temporary widow's pension lasts six months if the widow is under the age of 27 on commencement of the pension; for each year that she is older than 26, the payment lasts one month longer.

The maximum period during which a temporary widow's benefit is paid has been fixed at two years.

The Act provides for a pension for orphans who have lost both their parents. They receive this pension until they are 16 years of age or – if they are disabled or still studying or attending a vocational training course – up to the age of 27. For children who have lost their father, the widow receives children's allowance in virtue of the Children's Allowance Act for Holders of Disability, Old-Age and Orphans' Pensions.

The widow's pension is fls 2,292 per annum for a widow who has one or more children under the age of 18 belonging to her household. In all other cases the pension is fls 1,578 per annum. The temporary widow's pension amounts to fls 1,578 per annum. The pension for orphans who have lost both their parents is:

fls 510 per annum	up to the age of 10
fls 768 per annum	for children aged 10–15 inclusive
fls 1002 per annum	for children aged 16–26 inclusive

Just as under the General Old-Age Insurance Act, the pensions paid under the General Widows' and Orphans' Insurance Act are tied to the cost-of-living index.

The pensions paid in a certain period have to be paid out of the contributions levied in that same period.

The contribution is levied in the same way as under the General Old-Age Insurance Act, the only difference being that the contribution percentage under the General Widows' and Orphans' Insurance Act has been fixed at 1.25 %.

The General Widows' and Orphans' Insurance Act, just like the General Old-Age Insurance Act, is implemented by the Social Insurance Bank in cooperation with the Labour Boards.

The Social Insurance Bank is also in charge of fixing the contribution percentage, subject to the approval of the Minister of Social Affairs and Public Health.

The contribution is levied and collected by the State Revenue Department and paid into the Widows' and Orphans' Fund.

Old-Age Pensions

In the Netherlands it is generally the rule that employment ceases upon the age of 65 being reached. The question of a pension, also known as provision for old age, thus generally arises in the case of those above the age of 64.

The people of the Netherlands are thrifty by nature and there are many in all strata of the population who manage to accumulate some property for their old age; for instance, their own house, some shares and bonds, and so on. At the start of this century there were only a few company pension funds and other private collective old-age funds. In the years before the war it was chiefly the large and established undertakings which set up such funds. In this way there were even before 1940 a fairly large number of people who were provided for, though perhaps only to a modest degree, in their old age.

Disability Act

As far as legal provisions for old age are concerned, mention must first of all be made of the Disability Act (1913), which came into full operation in 1919. As already mentioned, the Disability Act includes compulsory insurance for employees against the financial consequences of old age. Old age was in fact regarded as a form of disability because of the resultant inability to work. Under the Disability Act the insured person has, on reaching the age of 65, the right to an old-age pension; the amount is dependent on the number of stamps affixed to his card, their value, and the period for which he has been insured.

Old-Age Insurance Act

Together with the Disability Act there came the Old-Age Insurance Act, which was put into operation on the same day as the Disability Act. As already stated, this Act, in contrast to the Disability Act, includes a voluntary old-age insurance scheme.

Under this Act every Netherlands national and every resident of the country can insure themselves for a pension varying from fls 3 to fls 20 per week.

The major devaluation of money which occurred during and after World War Two resulted in the payments being reduced, under the existing provisions, to a half or a third. There was also a sharp increase in the number of people over 65 because of the increased life expectancy.

General Old-Age Insurance Act

On 1 January, 1957, the General Old-Age Insurance Act came into operation. The aim of the latter is general compulsory insurance against the financial consequences of old age. In general, all residents of the State who are between the ages of 15 and 65 have to be insured by law. The funds for the pensions are obtained through contributions paid by the insured persons. The cover system has been chosen for this purpose, and this means that the payments are covered by the contributions received during the same period. The contribution amounts to 5.5% of either income or wages up to fls 8,250. Wages or income above this figure are not taken into account in assessing the contribution. The contribution is levied, if and insofar as the insured persons are liable to pay wage tax, by way of deduction from the wages by the employer. If and insofar as the insured persons are not liable to pay wage tax, the contribution is levied by way of assessment.

For unmarried persons with an income lower than fls 1,500 and married persons with an income lower than fls 2,100, the contribution, insofar as it is levied by means of an assessment, does not have to be paid. If the incomes of the above are less than fls 2,500 and fls 3,100 respectively, then only part of the contribution, insofar as it is levied by means of an assessment, has to be paid. This measure is of importance in particular for self-employed persons of low income and those who have to live on a small income and are not yet 65 years of age. If the contribution is obtained by deducting it from wages, the full contribution usually has to be paid.

A pension may be claimed by men and unmarried women who have been insured and who have reached the age of 65. Married men can obtain the pension for married persons, unmarried persons are paid a lower rate of pension. The pension for married persons amounts to fls 1,872 per annum, the pension for unmarried persons to fls 1,182 per annum. A very important point is that these pensions are tied to the cost-of-living index, being kept in line with the level of wages. If the wage index figure changes by an average of at least 3 per cent for six months, then the pensions are correspondingly increased or reduced. In principle, the full old-age pension is only paid to those who have been insured from their 15th to their 65th year and who have not deliberately avoided paying contributions. For each year that a person has not been insured or has deliberately avoided paying contributions, the full pension is generally reduced by 2%.

Under the above there would be persons who would not obtain any pension and others who would not obtain a full pension:

- a. persons already 65 years or older at the time of the Act coming into force would not qualify for an old-age pension as they could not, of course, have been insured;
- b. persons who at the time of the Act coming into force were older than 15 but not yet 65 years of age could not obtain a full pension, as they could not have been insured from their 15th to their 65th year.

In order that these persons can receive the full pension, temporary arrangements have been included in the General Old-Age Insurance Act. Under these temporary regulations the full old-age pension is granted to those in categories a and b (the latter regarded as having been

insured between their 15th birthday and the coming into operation of the Act) provided that – and this applies to persons in both categories –

1. they are of Netherlands nationality;
2. reside in the Netherlands;
3. have lived in either the Netherlands, Surinam, the Netherlands Antilles, or Netherlands New Guinea for six years – even though not continuously – after they have reached their 59th birthday.

By general administrative order some categories of non-Netherlands nationals have been put on the same footing as Netherlands nationals as far as qualification 1. is concerned; and under 2. and 3. some persons residing outside the Netherlands are treated in the same way as those residing in the Netherlands.

The Act is administered through the Social Insurance Bank and the Labour Boards. The contributions are collected by the income tax authorities and passed on by them to the Social Insurance Bank.

The Compulsory Participation in an Industrial Fund Act

The Pension Funds and Savings Funds Act

The pension paid out under the General Old-Age Insurance Act may perhaps not seem to be entirely adequate to meet the needs of old-age pensioners, but then it has to be borne in mind that there are an ever-increasing number of private pension arrangements. These arrangements may be insurance policies taken out with a life insurance company, but very often they take the form of either an industrial pension fund or a company pension fund.

Before 1940 some industrial pension funds had already been started; these are funds which assure a pension to those who are employed in undertakings in a particular branch of industry, for instance the metal industry. In 1949 the Compulsory Participation in an Industrial Pension Fund Act was passed in order to regulate these funds. It leaves the establishment of industrial pension funds entirely at the discretion of employers and employees in a particular branch of industry. Once such a fund has been started the Act makes it possible for the Minister of Social Affairs and Public Health to make participation in that fund compulsory for the whole of this branch of industry, if he has been requested to do so by the representative organizations of employers and employees in that branch. One of the conditions that has to be fulfilled is that the board of the fund must consist of an equal number of members representing the employers and the employees. One of the reasons for this is to ensure a sufficiently broad basis for the fund.

At the end of 1960 there were 64 of these industrial pension funds; participation in 40 of them is compulsory for all or most workers in the branches of industry with which these funds are connected. Some funds admit not only employees but also employers. This is the case for instance with housepainters, blacksmiths, stonemasons, plasterers and timber merchants.

Provisions have to be made in the regulations of an industrial pension fund for those persons who want to contract out of the fund because of the fact that prior to the introduction of compulsory participation in this fund they were already participating in the pension fund of their employer or, through their employer, were already insured with a life insurance company. Provisions have also to be made for those who have conscientious objections to every form of

insurance. Such objectors need not participate in a pension scheme. However, they are obliged to participate in a savings scheme, to which they must contribute the same amount of money as otherwise they would have had to pay towards the compulsory pension scheme.

In 1954 the Pension Funds and Savings Funds Act came into operation. This Act does not make it compulsory for an employer to set up a pension fund or a savings fund, but if an employer undertakes to provide a pension he has to adhere to certain regulations, such as forming a pension fund or taking out life insurances. One of the aims of the Act is to ensure that the funds destined for pension purposes are not bound up with the fortunes of the company. This Act has the important principle that, in the case of early withdrawal from the service of a company, for whatever reason, the ex-participant in a pension fund has a paid-up claim to the pension due as from the pensionable age, based upon his own and his employer's contributions. In this case he does not receive the surrender value in cash, even if he should wish to do so (unless participation ends on account of the marriage of a female participant or because of emigration). This principle contributes to removing obstacles to the mobility of labour and to the employment of older persons. If the worker should withdraw before having completed five years of participation, he can at least claim the amount of his own contributions in cash; this procedure is designed to facilitate the administration of the fund. The same principles are mutatis mutandis also applicable if an employer takes out life insurance instead of forming a pension fund.

There are now about 1,870 pension funds to which this Act is applicable, and the number of employers who have taken out life insurances instead of forming a pension fund is more than 18,000.

Finally, it should be mentioned that both the industrial pension funds and the company pension funds are under the supervision of the Insurance Chamber in the same way as are the life insurance companies.

Complementary Social Provisions

The social insurance acts dealt with in the first chapter nearly all make their benefits conditional on a maximum period of time, and are in all cases directed towards clearly defined groups of employees. They do not cover long-term unemployment, for instance, or illness of a self-employed person. This has led to the central Government taking measures as a complement to the social insurance acts to provide for the financial consequences of these uncovered risks. In this way the complementary social benefit regulations came into being.

However, it will be clear that financial assistance to persons unemployed for long periods is only a stopgap. First and foremost, measures must be taken for the purpose of helping the person concerned to find employment again, e.g. by creating special, suitable projects. This has led to the various special work provision regulations, which in turn are complementary to the general measures described in the chapter on Labour Supply.

There are two groups of complementary social provisions:

1. complementary work provision;
2. complementary benefit and credit provisions.

They are operated by the municipal authorities. The State makes a considerable contribution towards the expenditure which the municipal authorities incur in putting the relevant regulations into effect.

Complementary Work Provision

Experience shows that a not inconsiderable number of persons remain incapable of finding employment. The general measures aimed at widening opportunities of employment (supplementary employment) do not help as far as they are concerned. In many cases the cause must be sought in particular obstacles of a personal nature. By making allowance for this in creating possibilities of employment, efforts are made to get this category of persons working again. For this purpose there are three regulations, the operation of which is in the hands of the municipal authorities:

- a. the Municipal Social Work Provision Regulations for Manual Workers;
- b. the Social Work Provision Regulations for White-Collar Workers;
- c. the Social Commissions for Artists Regulations.

a. *The Municipal Social Work Provision Regulations for Manual Workers*

These regulations, which were introduced in 1949, are meant for unemployed manual workers who cannot get suitable normal employment or work on a project of supplementary employment and who are not suitable for or capable of training, rehabilitating or reskilling. These workers are placed on suitable projects so as to increase, maintain or restore their social independence and suitability for work.

At first the projects were almost all open-air ones. However, since about 1953 increasing numbers of the persons concerned have been working in protected 'social workshops'; as a result there has gradually been a greater differentiation in the kinds of projects and the possibilities of re-introduction into normal employment have increased.

In the provisions regarding wages the basis is formed by a classification of the jobs to be done by the manual workers in three groups, this classification being based on quality and degree of difficulty. For each group a wage scale has been devised. For each worker an individual wage is fixed on the strength of his individual performance, use being made of a method by which the performance is judged from various points of view. These points of view relate both to the production itself and to the attitude, devotion to duty, etc., of the person concerned. In order to prevent individual hourly earnings becoming too high, a limit as set to the average individual hourly earnings.

The State pays the municipal authorities a subsidy of 90 % towards the costs entailed by wages and social charges under these regulations of the projects are open-air ones. If the projects are workshop ones (or other projects with an immediate return of income), the subsidy is 90 % only for the first year of activity; in the following years it decreases via 85 % and 80 % to 75 %. Moreover, the State pays 50 % of the salaries of the supervising staff and of the officials who, for instance, have to enquire on behalf of the municipal authorities into the social situation of the workers concerned. Private workshops can also benefit from the possibilities of subsidization, the municipal authorities remaining responsible for the operation of the regulations.

b. The Social Work Provision Regulations for White-Collar Workers

The Social Work Provision Regulations for White-Collar Workers are concerned with unemployed white-collar workers who cannot find suitable normal employment and who cannot be trained, rehabilitated or reskilled. These workers are placed on suitable projects so as to increase, maintain or restore their social independence and suitability for work.

The regulations classify the work to be done by white-collar workers in four groups, this classification being based on the level of the work. A wage scale has been devised for each of these groups. The municipal authorities fix a wage for each worker on the strength of his age and individual performance; the amounts stated in the wage scales can be varied upwards or downwards by not more than 5 % when fixing the wage.

Individual performance is assessed by means of the following factors:

1. the quality of the work done by the white-collar worker;
2. the speed with which he does the work;
3. his accuracy and industry;
4. his effect on his surroundings.

The State pays the municipal authorities a subsidy of in general 90 % towards the costs entailed by wages and social charges under these regulations.

c. The Social Commissions for Artists Regulations (the Artists Regulations)

The main purpose of the Artists Regulations is the provision of social art commissions, for which a purchase price or fee is paid. The regulations also make it possible to grant social

payments which do not require a quid pro quo. The provision of social art commissions is the main form of assistance under the regulations; only if it is not possible or desirable for the artist concerned to carry out a commission can he be paid a weekly subsistence allowance.

The social nature of the regulations finds expression in, among other things, the method of payment of the fee or the purchase price, viz. in weekly instalments according to certain standards, with a certain deduction for the artist's own income or that of his wife. The municipal authorities can claim 75 % of the payments made under these regulations from the State.

Complementary Benefit and Credit Provisions

Not all persons who have to maintain themselves by work – whether in paid employment or not – can have recourse to the benefits offered by the social insurance acts if their income decreases or disappears altogether. This relates both to those who do not come under these acts and to those who do come under them but in fact can no longer lay claim to benefit. For these categories the State has created provisions for the granting of standard benefits, the operation of which is likewise in the hands of the municipal authorities.

The regulations in this field are:

- a. the Social Provisions for the Unemployed;
- b. the Social and Economic Provisions for Self-Employed Persons;
- c. the Provisions for the Blind;
- d. the Regulations for Handicapped Persons.

a. The Social Provisions for the Unemployed

As the finishing touch to the Unemployment Act, the purpose of which is to insure employees against the financial consequences of involuntary unemployment, and which entered into force on 1 July, 1952, the Undersecretary of State for Social Affairs has put into operation regulations for unemployed workers, known as 'Social Provisions'.

The Social Provisions make a distinction between two groups, viz.:

Group A. This consists in the main of the unemployed who are not insured under the Unemployment Act (only a small number).

The unemployed worker in this group receives a weekly benefit for not more than 21 weeks, as does the worker who comes under the Unemployment Act. This benefit is based on a percentage of his normal wage, but only up to a fixed maximum sum. This percentage is 80 for a person who is a sole means of support, 70 for boarders and those living alone and for the other workers, depending on age, 60, 40 or 25 %. The unemployed worker is also entitled to children's allowance for every child below the age of 16, and also for children from 16 to 26 years of age inclusive who are receiving education or attending a vocational training course, or who are not capable of reasonable working efficiency because of illness or defects.

Group B. This group consists mainly of unemployed persons who no longer receive benefit under the Unemployment Act. Those who belong to this group, like the unemployed in group A, receive benefit which is based on a percentage of the salary up to a certain maximum. The percentage is 75 for a person who is a sole means of support, 60 for those living alone and 45

for those living with their families and aged at least 21. The duration of the benefit for persons who are sole means of support and those living alone is unlimited, whilst those living with their families receive benefit for 26 weeks. On the other hand family payments can be made as are laid down for those coming under group A. The person's own income or that of his wife is deducted in accordance with certain standards.

The State gives 100 % subsidy for the benefit, and also a 50 % subsidy towards the salary costs of those investigating the personal circumstances of the applicants.

b. The Social and Economic Provisions for Self-Employed Persons

These regulations relate to self-employed persons whose income has declined or threatens to decline to such an extent that they will no longer be able to maintain themselves in the community, and who cannot be aided, or aided adequately, by the existing institutions for the granting of credit. Their purpose is to grant Government assistance to this category of persons, so as to restore or maintain their independence of society.

Under the regulations the self-employed persons are divided into three groups:

Group I. Those who need temporary assistance to maintain or restore their independence of society in their business or occupation, with the exception of those who belong to group II;

Group II. Those who need temporary assistance because they cannot carry on their business or follow their occupation mainly as a result of seasonal influences;

Group III. Those with regard to whom it may be expected that temporary assistance will not maintain or restore their independence of society in their business or occupation.

The self-employed persons belonging to group I or group II may be given the assistance in the form of:

- a.* weekly loans free of interest or weekly non-recoverable grants;
- b.* a lump sum, consisting of a loan free of interest, a non-recoverable grant or a combination of the two;
- c.* a combination of the possibilities listed under *a* and *b*.

As is the case with the other benefit regulations, the income of those who come under these regulations (or of their wife) is deducted. The self-employed persons who belong to group II have to register as applicants for employment at the labour exchange. Moreover, they may be placed on a project under the Social Work Provision Regulations for White-Collar Workers or the Municipal Social Work Provision Regulations for Manual Workers.

Persons forming part of group III are given assistance exclusively by application of the Social Provisions group B. This is conditional on their ceasing to carry on their business or follow their occupation as self-employed persons and on their making themselves available for paid employment.

The State pays the municipal authorities a subsidy of 75 % towards the costs of the benefit and of 50 % towards the salary costs of those investigating the personal circumstances of the applicants.

c. The Provisions for the Blind

Under these regulations blind persons may be granted financial assistance to increase their

independence of society. Benefit is divided into standard weekly payments for subsistence and special payments keyed to individual cases, which are of the nature of special social welfare. The blind person's income (with the exception of supplementary benefit under poor relief or from charitable sources) is deducted in part or in whole from the standard payments, which are supplemented by children's allowance in appropriate cases. The costs of sick fund insurance may be reimbursed. The special benefit already mentioned may be given if, as a result of the blindness, the financial circumstances of the blind person and, in appropriate cases, his family occasion this. This benefit may relate to special social needs which are directly connected with blindness, such as participation in social and cultural life in such a way that he is not placed at a disadvantage as compared with non-handicapped persons of the same social level.

d. The Regulations for Handicapped Persons

The purpose of these regulations is to ensure that provisions are made to remove obstacles preventing handicapped persons from working, these obstacles being inherent in their defect, complaint or infirmity.

The concrete aims of this assistance are:

- a.* restoration or development of disturbed physical or mental functions;
- b.* acquisition of professional skill;
- c.* bringing into existence the external conditions of his participation in employment;
- d.* providing for his subsistence during a period of training or probation.

Application of these regulations assumes that the municipal authorities will first try to tap private sources. The subsidy is 50 % of the costs remaining after deduction of fls 200, which is for the municipality's account.

Labour Supply

The question of labour supply in the Netherlands has three major aspects. The first is the provision of manpower for the industries and Government services, the second is the providing of work for the working population and thirdly there is the importance of keeping the best possible balance between supply and demand on the labour market. Nowadays, labour supply is one of the responsibilities of the central Government, which has the following means at its disposal:

- a. employment offices;
- b. vocational guidance and information;
- c. training, readjustment and rehabilitation schemes;
- d. encouraging the movement of manpower;
- e. encouraging occupational mobility;
- f. granting labour permits to foreign workers;
- g. granting permits for terminating employment;
- h. providing supplementary employment.

These measures have grown from, and are centered on, the main duty of labour supply: the labour exchange system.

Historical Development

In the historical development of labour supply three stages can be distinguished. The first phase was the labour exchange as such, which was entirely in the hands of private enterprise. Round about 1900, the position started to change. The irregular nature of supply and demand, the rapid changes from prosperity to depression, made it essential that the problem be treated in a more systematic manner. This was first undertaken by the municipal authorities. The first municipal labour exchange was opened at Schiedam in 1902. After some experience had been gained and the initial distrust had somewhat abated, municipal employment offices were started throughout the country. This was the second phase in labour supply. In order to meet interurban requirements, district employment offices were set up. In 1930 a legal footing was given to this system by the Employment Act, which came into operation in 1932. With some exceptions the Act made it impossible for labour exchanges to be operated for profit.

The policy of the municipal employment offices was mainly of a passive nature; it was limited to the interchange between supply and demand, insofar as there was a call for this by employers and those seeking work. The Act, however, also referred to helping employers to obtain manpower and aiding workers to find employment. In 1941 the question of labour employment was made the responsibility of the central Government. A State employment office was attached to the Department of Social Affairs and had area employment offices and sub-offices throughout the country. This was the commencement of the third phase.

The war years can, in this connection, be passed over without comment, since the employment office was used for entirely different purposes.

The third phase – in which the Netherlands is now – is marked by an active labour market policy. The aim is on the one hand to see that industry has at its disposal the manpower which it requires and, on the other hand, to help in obtaining employment for all Netherlands nationals who want to and are able to work.

The energetic efforts in this field are manifested in many ways; firstly by a systematic and scientific approach to the problem. The aim is to have the greatest possible knowledge and understanding of the state of the labour market in order to obtain as good a basis as possible for the policy pursued. As there are many people and authorities interested in the situation on the labour market, the Directorate for Labour Supply publishes an annual report entitled 'The Labour Market' (Arbeidsmarktbeschrijving). Apart from this there are periodical interim publications which give much statistical information.

Organization

Nowadays the organization is as follows. A National Employment Service is attached to the Ministry of Social Affairs and Public Health. This directorate consists of the National Employment Service and the State Additional Employment Service. Under the Government Employment Office are 11 district offices, 86 area employment offices with 65 branch offices, and 24 State centres for vocational training. The National Employment Service is aided by the Central Advisory Committee for Labour Supply, whose task is to advise on subjects concerning both the Government Employment Office and the State Additional Employment Service. The central employers' organizations and representative central federations of trade unions have members on the Central Advisory Committee. The area employment offices are organized in such a way that there are sections for the major industries and trades with which they are concerned. By this arrangement the officials obtain a thorough knowledge of the branch of industry they deal with. In addition there are separate sections for senior staff, young workers, female staff and less able-bodied workers. Many of the employment offices also have a vocational guidance section.

Vocational guidance and information

As already touched upon above, many employment offices have sections for vocational guidance. In 1961 these gave 21,879 recommendations on choice of vocation and study. Of these, 1,001 were given to individual enquirers, 10,070 to schoolchildren after tests at the schools, 3,351 to registered applicants for employment, 2,951 on behalf of placement in a regional centre for the vocational training of adults and 1,506 to persons in sanatoria, prisons and other institutions.

Besides those run by the central authorities there are also municipal and private bureaus (Catholic, Protestant and non-denominational) which are active in the field of vocational guidance. These bureaus give recommendations on choice of vocation or study to individuals and to schoolchildren after tests at the schools. The total numbers of recommendations in 1959 was 49,201 (Catholic bureaus, 16,628, Protestant bureaus 7,448, private non-denominational bureaus 25,125).

tional bureaus 15,146 and municipal and other bureaus 9,979). Many private bureaus are subsidized by the State, the provinces and the municipalities. All the bureaus charge applicants a fee according to income.

Apart from vocational guidance, considerable attention is also paid to the provision of information to school-leavers regarding their eventual entry into the community. By means of mobile careers exhibitions parents and schoolchildren can form some idea of the large variety of careers and occupations, whilst at a large number of schools class instruction is given in this matter.

Occupational mobility

An important aid in labour exchange work is the classification of interrelated jobs. The jobs are classified with reference to their occupational requirements. Whenever a person nowadays cannot get or finds it difficult to obtain employment in his own occupation, it can be determined by means of this classification which jobs approximately correspond to his old occupation.

Technical Training

In order to meet the great demand for technically skilled workers, institutes have been started at which those seeking employment can qualify as technically trained workmen. These institutes are known as State centres for vocational training, and there are 26 of them in the Netherlands. Those undergoing such courses receive compensation for loss of wages. In addition, it is possible for businesses which are willing to provide readjustment or rehabilitation courses for those seeking employment to obtain a training allowance from the Government.

What is called 'selective placement' has been established for less able-bodied workers seeking employment who, as a result of mental or physical defects, disease or abnormality, are considerably restricted in earning their own living. This service ascertains which occupations can be followed by such workers. It naturally operates by taking into consideration the capabilities, acquired skills and personal wishes of the less able-bodied person. There is close cooperation between the doctor and the vocational guidance adviser in such cases. This system has proved successful in many cases.

Industrialization

In various parts of the country the available manpower is in excess of the number of jobs there. In such cases these areas are known as 'workers' surplus districts'. The aim is, first of all, to provide employment opportunities in these areas by starting new industries and expanding the existing ones. These measures are strongly supported by the central Government and lower authorities, and notable results have been obtained.

Immigration

In order to balance the supply against the demand on the labour market one has to be able to

consider the results of immigration. Each employer who employs an alien has to obtain a work permit from the Government Employment Office, so that allowance can be made for the manpower needs in the various branches of industry. This also promotes the placing of the right man in the right job and prevents much disappointment and wasted effort, in the case of both the employer and the alien who is unfamiliar with the ways of the country.

The primary aim of the work permit system is to keep the balance on the labour market.

International Contact

International cooperation in every field is necessary for the development of the various countries of the world and for the furtherance of their prosperity. First and foremost, these efforts must entail the provision of work. The Government Employment Office supervises the provisions laid down in the agreements concerning the movement of workers from one country to another, in close contact with employment offices abroad. This international contact has developed in particular since 1945. Frequent consultation takes place within the now existing international organizations, the aim being encouragement of the movement of labour and better organization of employment offices, and all that this entails. The Netherlands is a member not only of the ILO, but also of Benelux, the ECSC, the EEC and the OECD.

The Benelux labour agreement has led to a common labour market between Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg for those possessing the nationality of one of these countries.

The European Coal and Steel Community also aims at a free market for those employed in the mines and the steel industry whose professional abilities are recognized and who are Dutch, Belgian, German, French, Italian or Luxembourg nationals.

The European Economic Community is likewise endeavouring to create a freer labour market for all workers who possess the above nationalities.

Finally, the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, which geographically covers the largest area of Western Europe, is similarly aiming at free movement of labour. It does not go as far in this as the organizations mentioned in the preceding paragraphs.

Reference should also be made to the exchange of student trainees. The extent of this may be seen from the following table, which relates to 1961.

Country of origin or country visited	Foreign student trainees in the Netherlands	Dutch student trainees abroad
Austria	56	55
Denmark	28	54
Finland	14	11
France	63	183
Germany	198	219
Great Britain	127	180
Italy	42	28
Norway	9	12
Sweden	16	85
Switzerland	55	76
Other countries	342	159
	950	1,062

The employment policy of the central authorities is to provide the most favourable possible conditions for full employment in normal business. If this policy does not prove entirely successful, special measures are required to provide the jobless part of the population with suitable employment by means of supplementary works. In other words, the authorities create jobs by carrying out projects or having them carried out with the primary aim of combating unemployment. For this purpose work is chosen which is useful and has some point to it, and which cannot be done – or done in time – without a subsidy. The wages and conditions of employment on these projects are the same as those on normal projects.

The Government promotes, by means of subsidies, the carrying out of supplementary works whenever and wherever they are needed. Since the depression years of the Thirties, when several hundred thousand men were out of work, the fight against unemployment has been the responsibility of the Government.

In order to achieve better coordination the National Employment Service was started on 1 July, 1954, as a section of the Ministry of Social Affairs and Public Health; the Government Employment Office and the State Additional Employment Service come under this Directorate. It is the task of the State Additional Employment Service to ensure that a supply of supplementary works of sufficient size and variety is available throughout the whole country. The Service further decides on whether plans put forward are eligible as supplementary works, and on the subsidies to be granted. Another aspect of its work is constantly adapting the implementation of approved supplementary works to the situation on the labour market. The Provincial Employment Services located throughout the country are of particular importance in the adjustment to this situation of the quantity and the types of supplementary works to be implemented. These are namely well-informed about the need for supplementary employment because of their work with regard to labour placement for private enterprise. In cases where sufficient supplementary employment cannot be created locally, the Additional Employment Service also provides the daily transport to supplementary works situated some distance away. If the distance becomes too great for daily transport, the workers who cannot be placed on supplementary works near their home are housed in Government camps. These are located in regions where there is a considerable supply of supplementary employment. The administration of these camps, together with catering and the general welfare of the workers living in them, is the responsibility of an Accommodation Service coming under the State Additional Employment Service.

When the supplementary employment consists of land improvement work, such as the reclamation of waste land, the improvement of cultivated land, drainage works and the construction of country roads, the acquisition and the implementation of these supplementary works is the function of the Land Improvement Service of the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries. When the works consist of the construction and improvement of State highways and canals, and also reclamation work along the coast, the Public Works Directorate attends to acquisition and implementation. This is done by the State Service itself for all other supplementary works. These are chiefly the construction for local authorities of roads, sewers, swimming pools,

sports grounds and playgrounds. For this purpose the Service has four District Offices located at various points in the country.

The supplementary employment policy is set by the Ministry of Social Affairs and Public Health in close consultation with seven other departments represented on the Public Works Coordination Board. The chairman of the board is the Director-General of the National Employment Service. Amongst the duties of the Coordination Board are, with the approval of the Minister of Social Affairs and Public Health, the appraisal of plans for supplementary works and the fixing of subsidies for such works; the comparison of periodical regional work programmes with the size and nature of the requirements and with the aspects they show in respect of the national policy; arbitrating on disputes as to the operation of these programmes; and handling all problems which may arise.

This description of the organization of supplementary employment is not yet complete, since the cooperation of the provincial, municipal and drainage district authorities is required. These authorities are either directly or indirectly concerned in most cases. At the request of the Minister of Social Affairs and Public Health, therefore, provincial committees for employment have been set up by the provincial authorities. These provincial committees are partly composed of Government officials and representatives of various provincial authorities and of industry. They are responsible for arousing the interest of the local authorities and private individuals in supplementary employment and for obtaining their cooperation. Furthermore, they are concerned with the drawing up of programmes for the execution of supplementary works and with the carrying out of the programmes that have already been approved. In the latter respect, the provincial committees for employment have a definite executive duty to perform, 'programme regulation'. In addition to these specific activities regarding stockpiling of plans, programming, and programme regulation, the provincial committees also have the more general task of closely following the employment situation in their area and reporting on it. In 1958 an average of 14,000 workers were employed on supplementary works. The highest numbers always occur in the winter, and in that year were 24,000. The lowest figure always occurs in the autumn, when harvesting offers considerable employment in private enterprise. In 1958 the lowest figure was 9,000. For 1961 these figures were 4,000, 9,000 and 1,200 respectively.

Two systems are used in supplementary works. Reclamation, land improvement and the laying out of sports grounds and playing fields are done by a number of private organizations which, after completion of the project, are reimbursed for the actual costs incurred.

The district offices of the Government Employment Office can take workers off these projects if there is work for them in normal business. This is not possible in the case of works such as the construction of roads, sewers, etc., which, after being put out to public tender, are done by contractors. This kind of project can only be done when it is absolutely certain that the workers employed on it will not be needed during that time for normal employment.



The Protection of Workers

The concept of workers' protection has undergone a remarkable development since World War Two. At first this was chiefly interpreted as meaning the enactment of legal provisions for limiting the hours of work, for preventing danger to the life and health of workers, and for supervising the observance of these regulations. Nowadays this concept is viewed as the promotion of a suitable atmosphere in which work can be carried out. It has been learnt that a favourable atmosphere in the business or factory not only increases the zest for work of those concerned but also, for instance, reduces the number of accidents. In this respect the Government acts more as an adviser in this field than as a supervisor of industry.

As far as the concept of workers' protection in its original meaning is concerned, the fixing of physical standards has also undergone a development in this field. The first Act relating to working hours was passed in 1874. It contained only a labour ban in the case of children below the age of 12, but it meant that the principle of State abstention from this field had been abandoned. The Labour Act of 1889 went a step further and contained regulations limiting the working hours of workers between the ages of 12 and 18 and also of women. The Labour Act of 1919 limited the hours of adult male workers in industry to an eight-hour day and a 45-hour week, but in 1922, under the pressure of economic conditions, this was raised to 8½ hours per day and 48 hours per week.

This standard, which is also adhered to in many other countries, still applies in this country, though the working hours of the majority of workers coming under collective labour agreements have been decreased by from one to three hours.

Until 1955 the entrance age for industrial work was 14 years for both boys and girls. In that year it was raised to 15 years for girls and the aim is to raise this age limit even higher for both groups of young people. Such a step will have to be accompanied by an extension of compulsory education or obligatory part-time instruction.

This is, however, a difficult problem, in view of the lack of educational facilities and the high birth rate in the years following World War Two. Apart from that, more and more parents are voluntarily turning to supplementary education for their children, and in businesses themselves there are instruction courses for young people so that they can learn a trade while working on a part-time basis (apprentice systems, trade schools).

Furthermore, certain occupations which are dangerous or unhealthy are prohibited to young people and women, or there are special safeguards in force for such work. Overtime work is allowed provided that special permission has been granted. In the granting of such a permit the standpoint is that, in view of the economic position of the Netherlands, a flexible policy is desirable; however, this does not mean that there is no resistance to the pressure for overtime work.

Sunday is a general day of rest. There are, of course, exceptions to this, for instance businesses in continuous operation; but as the Sunday rest is generally regarded in the Netherlands as an important factor, the exceptions are kept as few as possible. The most recent extension of the Labour Act has brought the agricultural worker within its scope. In this case the principle

applied is that the main points of the Act are in force, such as work by young people and women but that the administration is in the hands of the industry itself – the agricultural council and the forestry council on which the employers' and employees' organizations are represented. Attention to the safety of workers has also undergone development. In 1895 a Factory Act was passed relating to factories or places of employment where one or more prime movers or furnaces were in operation and where the staff numbered at least five. This Act was superseded in 1934 by an entirely new one which, in principle, applies to all undertakings, even those of agriculture and horticulture. Many concrete regulations have been laid down in a number of Safety Decrees with the aim of protecting workers. For instance, they concern the dimension of work places in relation to the number of occupants, illumination (daylight and artificial), dust and dampness control, the prevention and restriction of fires and accidents caused by fires, electric installations, cloak rooms, changing rooms, eating facilities, toilets, cleanliness, temperature and ventilation, safety of machinery and tools, obtaining assistance in cases of accidents, fire escapes, and measures against poisoning, infection and industrial diseases. Just as the field of workers' protection has been continually extended, so have the methods been improved by which industrial accidents can be prevented. While in earlier days the Government was only concerned with supervising the observance of these regulations, it is nowadays chiefly interested in the well-being of the workers. Such regulations are most definitely still essential but the conviction is steadily growing that the workers' mental approach plays a very important part in the prevention of accidents. The aim is therefore the promotion of a healthy human relationship in the business itself. With this in mind many large undertakings have started safety committees. An important part of the activities of these committees is connected with the Safety Institute at Amsterdam. This institute provides information about various hazards, organizes safety congresses and distributes brochures.

In many of the larger businesses there are also industrial medical services which are engaged in, for instance, preventive medical care and hygiene in the business itself. At present, these services are developing rapidly. There is a scientific institute at Leyden, the Institute for Preventive Medicine, which gives active guidance in all kinds of research in the field of industrial medicine and does pioneering work on such subjects.

A bill is in the course of preparation, and this will make industrial medical services compulsory for undertakings which have more than a certain number of workers and for those which are particularly dangerous.

Besides the Labour Act and the Factory Act there are a number of other Acts relating to the protection of workers. For instance, there is the Act introduced in 1952 which deals with dangerous equipment, both home-manufactured and imported. In this respect, even though the name of the Act does not suggest it, it refers not only to the dangerous equipment but also to the relevant safety measures. The first regulation under this Act came into operation in 1954 and stipulated an annual inspection for lifts and similar equipment.

There is also the Stonecutters' Act of 1921, in which separate regulations are prescribed for the safety and working hours of stone cutters. Then there is the Silicosis Act, which is aimed at combating the danger of silicosis and other lung diseases caused by dust. Under the last mentioned Act the working and processing of sandstone, including sandblasting, is prohibited. In the Stevedores' Act of 1914, regulations are laid down for the protection and working hours of those engaged in loading and unloading of ships. In the Driving Hours Act of 1936 provisions



are made for the protection of drivers against excessively long working spells and for safety on the road. The Home Workers' Act of 1933 protects home workers, mainly in connection with the often unsatisfactory hygienic conditions under which such work has to be carried out. A new Home Workers' Act is in the course of preparation which, in principle, forbids this type of work.

The protection of workers against ionizing rays is regulated by the Ionizing Rays Safety Decree which is based on the Safety Act of 1934. The Decree contains regulations relating to the protection of workers against the dangers of equipment and substances emitting ionizing rays. It lays down maximum permissible doses as are internationally accepted, and also regulations for the protection and shielding of the equipment, for the construction of laboratories, etc., for the transport, storage and disposal or discharge as waste of substances emitting ionizing rays. The Decree also regulates the medical supervision of radiological and equivalent constructions.

The Netherlands is a member of the European Atomic Energy Community (Euratom), and consequently is subject to the obligation to adjust its existing and future legislation to Euratom's 'directives for establishing the basic standards for the protection of the population and of employees against the dangers entailed by ionizing rays'. Pursuant to this obligation, legislative measures are in an advanced stage of preparation.

This supervision of the observance of the Acts dealing with labour protection is in the hands of the Labour Inspectorate. This has a Central Service with headquarters at The Hague and, for the purpose of administering the Acts, the country is subdivided into 10 districts. There is a chief inspector in charge of each district, assisted by technical civil servants and inspectors; there is also a woman inspector for supervising the working conditions of factory girls. The Labour Inspectorate is, however, not only active in supervising the observance of the various Acts. It also undertakes many kinds of investigations, collects information on working conditions, staff control and suchlike, gives advice to industries and encourages them to make the necessary arrangements for improving the well-being of workers.

Wage Policy

Up to World War Two employers and employees in the Netherlands were theoretically entirely free to fix wages and other conditions of employment in joint consultation. The wages and secondary conditions of employment, if any, were laid down in either individual or collective labour agreements. This meant that wage determination was dependent on greatly fluctuating factors. The wages were the result of sometimes laborious negotiations. They were subject to the situation on the labour market, conditions which were the result of historical development, the economic position of a certain firm or branch of industry, the power of the unions, etc. As a result of all this the prewar wage system displayed a richly variegated, kaleidoscopic picture. The authorities only intervened in wage determination and related subjects in exceptional cases. An example of such intervention is to be found in the Act regulating the making binding or non-binding of provisions in collective labour agreements. This Act gave the Minister of Social Affairs the right to make certain provisions of collective labour agreements which were applicable to what he considered a considerable majority of the persons employed in a branch of industry generally binding in the whole country or in part of the country, at the request of the organizations of employers and of employees concerned in the collective labour agreement. Moreover, this Minister could declare provisions of a collective labour agreement to be non-binding, if the public interest demanded this.

This Act, which provides the authorities with a means of more or less influencing wage determination, is still in force, although the powers described in it have since 1945 been exercised by a body known as the Board of Government Conciliators. In recent years in particular this Board has received and granted numerous requests to declare provisions of collective agreements generally binding.

After the liberation a clean break was made with the prewar system of wage determination. The deplorable state of affairs made it vital that a closely controlled wage policy be followed. To put this policy into effect, the Extraordinary Employment Relations Decree 1945, which has force of law, instituted the Board of Government Conciliators mentioned above. Although the members of this Board are appointed by the Minister of Social Affairs and Public Health, they do not have the status of civil servants. They are independent men, appointed because of their skill and experience in the wage field. Their number has varied in the course of the years from six to eight. Apart from the Chairman, whose job is a full-time one, membership of the Board of Government Conciliators is a sideline, though an important one.

The Board is the executive organ of wage policy, and it has a great degree of independence. However, wage policy forms a subsidiary part of general social and economic policy. The Board cannot therefore be entirely independent. Hence the Extraordinary Employment Relations Decree lays down that in exercising its powers the Board must follow the general instructions of the Minister of Social Affairs and Public Health.

The principal powers of the Board are as follows:

- a. giving force of law to wages and other conditions of employment, either at the request of organizations of employers and employees or ex officio;
- b. approving collective labour agreements;

- c. making provisions of collective labour agreements generally binding or non-binding on an entire branch of industry;
- d. drawing up directives with regard to the regulation of wages and other conditions of employment;
- e. if requested to do so by interested parties, granting dispensation from a binding wage arrangement, approved collective labour agreement or provisions of a collective labour agreement which have been made binding.

In its function the Board of Government Conciliators cooperates closely with the Foundation of Labour¹⁾. Under the Extraordinary Employment Relations Decree, the Board must seek the advice of the Foundation of Labour before taking a decision of more general import.

The Board can also invite public corporations and other organizations of employers and employees to give their opinion in appropriate cases. In practice not a single decision with regard to a certain branch of industry is taken without the organizations concerned being given an opportunity to explain their point of view and to defend their interests.

In recent years the binding wage arrangements of the Board of Government Conciliators have been gradually replaced by collective labour agreements and binding collective agreements, as a result of which the stress in wage determination has come to fall to a greater extent than formerly on organized industry.

The employer is forbidden to grant to the employee wages or other conditions of employment which deviate from the binding wage arrangement or the approved collective labour agreement, or from provisions of collective labour agreements which have been made generally binding. Legal penalties are attached to this prohibition. Immediately after the liberation the Board of Government Conciliators granted permission for wages to be increased by a certain percentage as a temporary measure. However, it was soon found that this increase, viewed in the light of the rise in the cost of living, was inadequate. Consequently the Board then proceeded to establish new wage norms for the various industries and trades in consultation with organized industry, by which a certain equilibrium was achieved between wages and prices. However, the wage level could not be permanently maintained as it stood. The development of economic life repeatedly demanded general wage adjustments. On several occasions the Government, at the initiative of the Foundation of Labour, and after due consultation of the Foundation, decided to introduce general wage rounds, i.e. general wage increases applicable to the whole of Dutch industry, chiefly in order to absorb the recurrent tension between wages and prices.

The wage round of 1 October, 1954, was fundamentally different in nature. In this case it was not so much a question of adjusting wages to the cost of living, which had remained stable for some considerable time; the aim was rather to realize as equitable as possible a distribution of the national income, which had meanwhile risen. The same can be said about the liberalization of secondary labour conditions granted under certain conditions in the autumn of 1955.

At the end of 1955 the Government expressed its readiness to cooperate in the realization of a freer wage policy, which would make it possible to arrive at a greater differentiation between the rates of pay for different industries, if employment, productivity and financial position justified this, and subject to such coordination as was considered desirable. Furthermore, a limited differentiation in wages and terms of employment from firm to firm was permitted, owing to the fact that the Government displayed its willingness to permit more differentiation than usual so far with regard to the regulations on the distribution of profits.

Within the framework of this policy the Government, having consulted the Social and Economic Council and the Foundation of Labour, authorized the Board of Government Conciliators at the beginning of 1956 to approve proposals for the increase of the legal wages and other conditions of employment to not more than 6 %, provided that this would not result in an increase in prices. This increase could only be passed on in the prices if the wage increase were not more than 3 %, and provided the necessity of increasing the prices had been demonstrated to the Minister of Economic Affairs or to the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries.

As a result of special circumstances – the boom and the overstrained labour market resulting from this – this wage round did in fact work out as a practically uniform increase of the wage level by 6 %.

A later deterioration in the economic situation meant that in 1957 and 1958 there could be no question of a system of freer wage policy. Only in a limited number of cases in which wages had obviously lagged behind were wage increases permitted.

Not until mid 1959, after the Dutch economy had recovered, did the Netherlands Government decide, partly on the recommendation of the Social and Economic Council, to return to a system of freer wage determination. As a criterion of the possibilities of increasing wages and improving other terms of employment the Government decided to introduce the development of productivity and, in particular cases, of the profit-earning ability of the branch of industry or the concern. Furthermore, the most important condition governing approval of wage increases and improvement of other terms of employment is that this may not lead to a rise in prices.

Besides the introduction of greater differentiation, the Government also considers it desirable to retain a certain degree of coordination. For instance, a wage increase which too greatly exceeds the average national rise in productivity should be avoided, in view of possibly unfavourable consequences for the labour market, and should if possible be combined with price reductions. Moreover, it is logical that – from the point of view of coordination too – it will have to be possible to increase wages in the course of time in those branches of industry where there is little increase in productivity and the development of the profit-earning ability is not sufficient either. In those cases it is inevitable that the wage increase will have to be passed on to the consumer in part or in its entirety. With regard to the wages in those sectors not forming part of business it may be added that these will follow the trend in business.

The following may be said about the motives which have led to the introduction of a system of freer wage determination. One of the main motives is the desirability of shifting the main responsibility for wage determination from the authorities to business. Moreover, such a system renders a maximum increase in prosperity possible for the employees of the various branches of industry and a better synchronization is obtained between the development of wages and that of productivity. Last but not least, reference may be made to the stimulating effect of a system of freer wage determination on productivity.

Finally, on the advice of the Social and Economic Council, the Government has expressed its readiness in principle to reorganize wage determination. This would be done by instituting a Wages Council and by transferring the powers of the Board of Government Conciliators to the Social and Economic Council and this new Wages Council. A bill on this subject is at present in preparation.

¹⁾ See the chapter on the Foundation of Labour.

Employers' Organizations

Employers' organizations began to develop relatively late in the Netherlands. In the previous century individualism among employers was considerable, under the influence of liberal economic philosophy and as a reaction to the restraint of the guilds in earlier centuries. The Netherlands believed in the principle of free trade, and the authorities scarcely concerned themselves with economic life.

The social problem, which came to the fore towards the end of the previous century, was the direct cause of the employers' organizing more widely.

Whilst the Employer's Liability Act was being considered in 1899, a number of manufacturers drew up a petition to voice certain objections. This was done in a rather makeshift fashion, and some manufacturers realized that this was not the right way of going about things. They founded the Association of Netherlands Employers so that they could be informed about matters sooner and so would be able to influence the course of events.

It was soon evident that an organization per branch of industry was needed for dealing with questions relating to the direct terms of employment of personnel. As a result of this the employers in the various industries proceeded to organize separately.

World War One helped considerably to foster the growth of employers' organizations. Many emergency measures were taken in the industrial field, so that more consultation was required. Some organizations were concerned with both labour matters and commercial subjects, but there were also branches of industries in which there were separate associations for these two groups of subjects. Most of these organizations for individual industries were averse to a central organization, since such an organization must of course work along general lines and with general aims. It was felt that the differences between the various industries were too great for that. However, at the beginning of this century the number of problems increased greatly, so that in the long run the need arose for a certain degree of contact, to enable ideas to be exchanged about similar questions.

Consequently, the Association for Central Consultation in Labour Matters for Employers' Unions was founded in 1920. The aim was to further the employers' general interests in the field of labour by such means as collecting data, promoting further consultation between employers and reaching unanimous agreement on various questions. As the name indicated, the members were organizations which remained autonomous, so that the Association rarely came into contact with the outside world.

The same year also saw the foundation of the Central Industrial Federation, which was joined by organizations of commercial and economic employers' associations.

The aim of the Federation was consultation on problems in the commercial field. It took a stand against any interference which might limit or prevent the growth of Dutch industry, so that the Federation had more to do with the outside world and played a more active part than the Association for Central Consultation.

Some years before, namely in 1917, the Federation of Netherlands Manufacturers' Associations had been set up. This was a federation of general and local employers' associations, and its

purpose became to combat all kinds of emergency measures remaining in the Netherlands from World War One which harmed free development. It had further the general aim of representing the interests of Dutch industry at home and abroad. After the Factories Act came into force in 1919, this Federation also became active in the social field.

Consequently, in the Twenties there was not only the Association of Netherlands Employers, but also three blanket organizations covering all employers who believed that the labour movement should be non-denominational. In 1926 the Association of Netherlands Employers and the two industrial federations, as they were called, amalgamated. The new organization was christened the Federation of Netherlands Employers; its aim was the furtherance of the economic interests of industry. The Association for Central Consultation continued to exist alongside the Federation of Netherlands Employers. One was concerned with social problems, the other with commercial and economic ones. This has remained so ever since, though of course further changes have occurred under the influence of social developments. Separate mention must also be made of a general non-sectarian organization founded in 1919 and still in existence, viz. the General Employers' Association, a federation of associations of individual branches of industry, which acted as a catch-all for the employers in whose branch of industry there was no employers' association. From the start the Association was active in the social field and up to 1940 kept in close touch with the Association for Central Consultation. Since 1945 it has collaborated with the Central Social Employers' Federation, which is the post-war successor to the Association for Central Consultation.

Not only the employees but also the employers have denominational organizations, viz. a Catholic and a Protestant one. In 1891 a Protestant social congress was held, which testified to the desire in Protestant circles for a Protestant social programme. The consequence of the Protestant social congress was that in 1892 300 employers decided to found a Protestant organization, which was given the name of the Boaz Association of Netherlands Employers. It was a general organization with members in very divergent branches of industry. After a few years it became evident that this association was no longer viable: it was too heterogeneous to survive. In 1917 it was decided to disband Boaz and to split it into a Protestant Farmers' Association, a Protestant Employers' Association and a union of Protestant Associations of the Trading Middle Classes.

For years afterwards a point of controversy in Protestant circles – which incidentally still exists, though to a lesser extent – was whether the Protestant employers would not be advised to join the non-denominational general and specialized associations for the purpose of furthering their social and economic interests and at the same time combine in Protestant organizations based on social classes. Some Protestant employers were in favour of this, with the result that, compared with the non-denominational employers' organizations, the Protestant ones remained of modest proportions. Despite this, the Protestant Employers' Association had great influence in practice, owing to its particular principles, as a result of which it won the right to be represented in the discussions between the employers, with the unions and the authorities and in the joint bodies.

The Roman Catholic employers' associations, on the other hand, developed much more strongly right from the start, since the Roman Catholic section of the population, which for centuries had to be content with an inferior position, felt the need for organizations of their own much more strongly. And added to this is the fact that in Roman Catholicism there is a much closer

link between church and society. A third circumstance which contributed to a vigorous development of the Roman Catholic employers' organizations is that, in the last century in particular, the Roman Catholics in the Netherlands mainly lived in the southern provinces of North Brabant and Limburg which, economically speaking, had quite a different structure from that elsewhere in the country.

In 1915 the General Roman Catholic Employers' Association was set up. In accordance with the wishes of the Episcopate this was a class organization, and so was general in nature. The Employers' Association had branches throughout the country, but in 1923 it was converted into a federation of five diocesan Employers' Associations. Besides this organization there were a large number of employers' associations in the various industries. In 1919 the Roman Catholic Federation of Employers' Associations was founded.

The non-denominational, Catholic and Protestant Employers' Associations had two joint bodies. Since 1921 the chairman and secretaries had met regularly in the Circle of Federations of Employers' Associations to discuss general problems in the social and economic field. A second form of contact came about in the Netherlands branch of the International Organization of Industrial Employers. This organization was founded in 1919 on the occasion of the first International Labour Conference, held at Washington. It was concerned with the preparation of the work of the International Labour Conferences. Since the Netherlands branch naturally aimed at a uniform point of view, this joint body led to the various federations consulting one another more intensively on the various problems, particularly those in the social field, social legislation and the regulation of terms of employment.

In August 1941 all the employers' federations were disbanded, both non-denominational and secretarian, because they refused to collaborate with the Netherlands Labour Front, which had been founded at the instigation of the Germans after the federations of employees' organizations had been disbanded.

After the liberation the prewar Federation of Netherlands Employers was split into an economic part and a social part. The economic part kept the old name: the Federation of Netherlands Employers. The social part became the Central Social Employers' Federation, which was formed from the Association for Central Consultation. Both organizations, which were founded in 1945, exist alongside each other independently.

The Federation of Protestant Employers' Associations in the Netherlands returned after the war with the same aims and function in the economic and social fields as before 1941. In the Roman Catholic sector the General Catholic Employers' Association was revived, which is active in both the social and the economic sphere, together with the Roman Catholic Federation of Employers' Associations, which is mainly concerned with social problems.

The trading middle classes in the Netherlands are organized in separate organizations. Before 1800 they were vigorously organized in the guilds. These did not return after the French Revolution. During the 19th century a few organizations of the trading middle classes did exist, but their importance was limited.

Towards the end of the 19th century all this changed. Tradespeople began to realize that they were in danger of being caught in the middle between the developing organizations of employers in industry and the unions. In 1899 and 1901 congresses were held in Belgium for the purpose of framing measures to improve the position of the retail trade and small-scale industry. These were followed in 1902 by a congress at Amsterdam held at the invitation of the Amster-

dam Shopkeepers' Association. It was decided to set up the Netherlands Union of Associations of the Trading Middle Classes. This gave the impetus to a more rapid development of tradespeople's organizations in the Netherlands.

The organizations of the trading middle classes can be subdivided into central or class organizations and trade or employers' associations. The first are concerned with furthering the general economic and social interests of their members, the latter further those interests which are directly concerned with the business carried on. There are four central or class organizations, viz. the Royal Netherlands Tradespeople's Association, the Netherlands Catholic Tradespeople's Association, the Protestant Tradespeople's Association, and the Netherlands Federation of Associations of the Trading Middle Classes. The Royal Netherlands Tradespeople's Association has evolved from the Netherlands Union of Associations of the Trading Middle Classes mentioned above. It is non-sectarian and non-political, and is the largest organization in this field.

The Netherlands Catholic Tradespeople's Association dates from 1912, when the existing diocesan unions of the trading middle classes were federated. In 1915 this federation was converted into a national federation of diocesan unions. Since 1933 the Netherlands Catholic Tradespeople's Association has been not only a federation of the five diocesan organizations, but also the blanket organization of a large number of national federations of employers' associations. The Protestant Tradespeople's Association was founded in 1918. Partly under the influence of the First Protestant social congress of 1891 local Protestant employers' associations had come into being, which together formed a general employers' association, from which the Association of Protestant Trading and Industrial Middle Classes emerged, among others, as the result of a split. In 1935 the latter organization was converted into the present association. The non-sectarian, Protestant and Catholic associations collaborate in the Consultative Committee of the Federations of Associations of the Trading Middle Classes.

In the Thirties there came into being an organization which in some respects was Socialist in trend, and which in 1949 was given the name of Netherlands Federation of Tradespeople's Associations.

There are a very large number of trade or employers' associations, a considerable number of which are affiliated to the federations.

30 to 40 per cent of the trading middle classes belong to one or the other of these organizations. This is considerably lower than the equivalent figure for industry (85 to 90 %) or for agriculture (70 %). The reasons for this are the individualistic nature of the tradespeople, the heterogeneous composition of the class, both functionally and as regards income, and the fact that there is considerable competition among the trading middle classes. Before 1940 the percentage of those organized was 15 to 20, so that there has been a considerable advance.

The federations of employers' organizations collaborate with those of the tradespeople's associations and those of the farmers' organizations in the Administrative Council for Labour Matters, which concerns itself with social problems. However, the council takes no part in direct negotiations. It is especially responsible for coordination and documentation. Only on a few occasions has it come into contact with the outside world in such matters as issuing a statement, etc.

Employees' Unions

The genesis of employees' unions in the Netherlands is closely bound up with the industrial development of that country in the 19th century. It was in part due to this development that the Dutch trade union movement was born about 1870.

Other factors of great influence in this respect were the changes in social and economic ideas as witness in particular the legal provisions made in the field of labour.

About 1860 there existed in the Netherlands various local associations of typographers and others whose principal task was to act as mutual aid societies in cases of sickness, accident, death, birth, etc. One of these associations grew in 1866 into the General Netherlands Typographers' Union, which was joined by various other existing mutual aid associations.

In 1866 the diamond-cutters also proceeded to organize. Workers from other branches of industry followed. The General Netherlands Workmen's Federation, the first federation of workers' unions, came to the fore. This federation expected results in particular from consultation and cooperation with the employers.

In 1877 an independent organization of Protestant workers was formed, under the name of Patrimonium. This was in part a reaction to the non-denominational nature of the General Netherlands Workmen's Federation. The Patrimonium was likewise not interested in following the path of strikes and direct action.

In 1891 the encyclical 'Rerum Novarum' appeared. This had a great influence on social development. In 1893 the National Labour Secretariat was founded. The stimulus for this had been given some years previously by the Socialist International. Seven unions, together with a political organization, joined the Social Democrat Association.

The National Labour Secretariat, which in 1895 had more than 15,000 members, specialized in unofficial strikes. It soon came under the influence of the anarchists. The consequence of this was that after a few years a number of unions left the Secretariat or were expelled. Despite repeated attempts in that direction, the last years of the 19th century did not see a new blanket organization.

In 1903 strikes broke out in the Amsterdam docks, followed by strikes of railwaymen. Although these strikes were successful at first and found a tremendous response in the country, the workers ultimately lost the action, mainly because of the lack of solidarity, faulty organization and a shortage of competent leaders. And yet the year 1903 was an important one, particularly for the Socialist labour movement, since as a result of the events of that year a number of unions gradually came into closer contact in subsequent years, and finally, in 1905, proceeded to form a blanket organization, the Netherlands Federation of Trade Unions, the NVV, which adopted the course of gradual consolidation of the labour movement. The NVV started with 20,000 members. Just over ten years later membership was 100,000 and by 1920 it had reached 247,000.

In 1909 the National Christian Federation of Trade Unions was founded by ten organizations with over 5,000 members. At first both Protestant and Catholic workers were members of this organization, but ultimately this interconfessionalism did not meet with the approval of the

Episcopate, and the Catholic workers left the National Christian Federation, so that this union covered only Protestant trade unions.

In 1909 a Bureau for the Roman Catholic Trade Unions was founded, which was joined by ten organizations with 9,300 members. In 1926 this Bureau made way for the Roman Catholic Workmen's League. In 1910 the National Christian Federation of Trade Unions and the Roman Catholic Workmen's League numbered 7,000 and 12,000 members respectively, whilst in 1920 the figures were 70,000 and 158,000.

Finally, the Netherlands Association of Trade Unions was founded, for the purpose of combining non-denominational unions in a separate organization.

After World War One the labour movement in the Netherlands developed quickly. The unions started to devote more attention to their organizational machinery, and paid organizers and secretaries who made trade unionism their career were to be found everywhere. The unions tried to improve the general education of their members by courses, and they set up holiday homes and sanatoria.

The number of trade union members increased from 352,000 in 1917 to 828,000 in 1933. Although the labour movement displayed great activity in the period between the two World Wars, there were hardly any national labour conflicts. In the Netherlands it was soon realized that a strike cuts both ways, and is particularly dangerous for a country with relatively large exports.

The depression in the Thirties meant a period of decline for the unions, too: greater unemployment, higher expenditure, lower income and a weaker bargaining position. The number of trade union members dropped from 828,000 in 1933 to 743,000 in 1938, after which it rose again to 798,000 as a result of the economic revival.

Something should also be said about the development of two blanket organizations. In the period between the two World Wars the membership of the National Labour Secretariat gradually declined; it could not hold its own with the NVV. The Communists then tried to get a footing in the NVV, but this failed, so that it may be said that in the years between 1918 and 1940 Communism remained of minor importance in both politics and the labour movement in the Netherlands.

The Netherlands Association of Trade Unions, which was mentioned above, came into being in 1929, when federations of unions of civil servants, white-collar workers and manual workers decided to collaborate. In 1933 the Netherlands Association of Trade Unions had 45,000 members, and in 1940, 50,000.

In the period between the wars a close concentration of unions in federations occurred. In 1917 the number of trade unionists affiliated to a federation was 63 %, in 1933 this figure was 85 %. The occupation years were very difficult for the labour movement, since at first its work was hampered, and in 1941 and 1942 forbidden.

After the liberation trade unionism in the Netherlands quickly revived. The NVV and the National Christian Federation of Trade Unions reappeared under their old names, whilst that of the Roman Catholic Workmen's League was altered to Catholic Workers' Movement, the KAB. The Netherlands Labour Secretariat, which still had 10,000 members in 1940, did not return. After the liberation the United Federation of Trade Unions was founded. The aim of this organization was to combine all workers in one body. At first it tried to amalgamate with the NVV. Nothing came of these attempts, mainly because the United Federation of Trade

Unions gradually emerged as a Communist organization. In 1948 the Netherlands Association of Trade Unions was refounded.

Apart from the field of the regulation of terms of employment, mainly by means of collective labour agreements, the three large federations of trade unions are very active in other directions. They are represented in numerous social, economic and financial organs which act as advisory bodies to the Government and/or fulfil all kinds of functions as co-partners in the sphere of public law.

Social and economic developments led to the three large federations of trade unions regrouping the affiliated unions after the war. They were organized per branch of industry, that is to say, employees, technical, commercial and administrative, from the senior to the junior positions, a certain branch of industry wishing to become union members join a union set up for the branch of industry by each of the various federations. This was a difficult matter, since numerous bonds which had developed over a long period of time had to be severed. This development has been under way for a number of years, but is still not entirely completed.

In the Netherlands membership of a union is not compulsory. About half of the working population are working members. Just as is the case with political parties, the unions have no special rights; they are ordinary associations, and are absolutely identical with one another.

The Netherlands Federation of Trade Unions (NVV)

The NVV recognizes the principles of human brotherhood, justice, truth, responsibility and respect for the human personality. It aims at a reformation of social and economic life so that everybody has equal opportunities in life. It regards a planned society as essential. If and insofar as the public interest demands, the control, organization and supervision of the means of production and, if necessary, of property, must be placed in the hands of the community. The aim of the NVV is to further the interests of the workers and their families, in particular those interests lying in the field of labour. In this connection it may be mentioned that the NVV has a Women's League with more than 100 branches and a total of over 10,000 members. The national organ of the NVV is the 'Stem van de Arbeid' (The Voice of Labour), which is aimed at the whole family. There is also a fortnightly publication for shop stewards and other officials entitled 'De Vakbeweging' (The Labour Movement). Institutions of the NVV include the general building fund, which gives financial aid for the construction of buildings for the local branches, the Scientific Bureau, the Legal Service, the TB Fund, the School Service Foundation and a couple of holiday homes for the members and their families. 20 unions are affiliated to the NVV, the largest of which, the General Metal Workers' Union, has 100,000 members.

The NVV is itself affiliated to the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions. On 1 January, 1962, it had 509,000 members.

The Netherlands Catholic Workers Movement (KAB)

This federation of unions accepts and professes the principles of the Christian religion, as taught by Christ and preached by the Catholic Church in His name. The interests furthered by the KAB may be subdivided into religious and spiritual, social and economic, socio-medical and financial, together with the specific interests of working-class youth and those of the women

and girls. These interests are furthered through a number of organizations: diocesan associations, unions, the central councils, the KAB services, the Catholic workers' youth movement and the Catholic workers' wives' association.

The diocesan associations further in their respective dioceses the religious, cultural, social and medical interests of the members and their families. The 25 unions are particularly concerned with social and economic interests common to workers belonging to a certain branch of industry. The largest union, the Catholic building workers' union, has 54,000 members.

The institutions of the KAB include 'Regained Vitality', which is active in the field of public health, and which has a sanatorium and a convalescent home for mothers; the A. C. de Brujin Institute, which is concerned with the social and economic education of the future union organizers; the Central Travel Fund, which arranges trips at home and abroad; the Central People's Savings Bank, with 185,000 depositors and a balance of 65 million guilders, and the Concordia Cooperative Life Insurance Company. Of the services, reference may be made to the Publicity Service and the Cultural Service. The KAB is affiliated to the International Federation of Catholic Workers' Movements and to the International Federation of Christian Trade Unions. On 1 January, 1962, the KAB had 414,000 members.

The National Christian Federation of Trade Unions (CNV)

The aim which the National Christian Federation of Trade Unions has set itself is to further the social, economic and moral interests of the members of the affiliated unions in particular and of employees in general. For that purpose it aims at social conditions which are in accordance with Christian principles of justice and brotherhood. The means to this end are the furtherance of Protestant unions for each branch of industry, the provision of social, economic and legal information to the affiliated organizations, a study of social problems, the training of employees, fostering a high standard of public health and housing, and collaboration with other federations of unions. The national organs are 'De Gids' (The Guide) 'Evangelie en Maatschappij' (Gospel and Society) and 'Jonge Handen' (Young Hands). Among the institutions of the CNV are the fund for combating TB and fostering public health; the legal bureau; the library; the educational and films service; the school for officials; holiday homes; and a Central Fund for granting credit for operating union buildings.

The number of organizations affiliated to the CNV is 26. The largest of these is the Netherlands Protestant Union of Civil Servants, with 38,000 members. The CNV is affiliated to the International Federation of Christian Trade Unions. On 1 January, 1962, the membership of the CNV was 224,000.

Netherlands Association of Trade Unions (NVC)

Besides the three large federations of unions in the Netherlands there is an organization which adopts an attitude of political independence. This is the Netherlands Association of Trade Unions, to which 15 unions are affiliated. The NVC publishes a monthly for members of the affiliated organizations, entitled 'Nederlandse Vakcentrale' (Netherlands Association of Trade Unions); on behalf of the shop stewards, etc., a quarterly appears, entitled 'Kaderblad' (Shop Stewards' Journal). A written course is given for the training of new shop stewards. On 1 January, 1962, the NVC had 11,000 members.

The Foundation of Labour

The idea of permanent cooperation between the organizations of employers and those of employees dates back to the period between the two World Wars. Owing to the fact that more and more collective labour agreements were concluded, there was considerable contact between the organizations of employers and employees per branch of industry. The conviction that numerous difficulties could better be solved by joint consultation than by conflict steadily won ground. Furthermore, when social insurance was extended more and more, both employer and employee were found to be desirous of placing its implementation in the hands of bodies to be set up by their organizations, whilst the State exercised supervision. A third reason for the demand for permanent cooperation was that the authorities felt an ever-growing need to hear the views of organized employers and workers before adopting certain measures. One of the results of this was that a High Court of Labour was instituted by law, in which the central organizations of employers and employees were among those represented. This automatically created the need for direct contact between employers' and workers' organizations.

It may be said that since 1928 there has been regular informal consultation between the leading figures of both groups. In 1938 another problem became current: should a more consolidated cooperation, operating towards the outside world, come into effect? However, the outbreak of war prevented these plans from being realized. Although the organizations were dissolved during the occupation, numerous discussions were held between the leading representatives of employers and workers. After the end of the war the Foundation of Labour was set up. So as to be able to start immediately, this was given the form of a private body. However, the founders planned that the private foundation should establish the basis for a public corporation doing the same work.

The Foundation was recognized by the authorities as the principal advisory body in the social field. The purpose of the Foundation was a double one.

Through the Foundation the central organization of employers and employees in industry, trade, agriculture and the trading middle classes would have to take a joint stand towards the outside world on numerous questions and secondly a certain cohesion between these organizations internally would have to be fostered. In order to prevent one party from gaining preponderance, it was agreed that, although the numbers of employers' and employees' organizations were not the same, they would vote on a basis of parity. For the employees' organizations this meant a considerable step forward, compared with the past.

The Government has made intensive use of the Foundation of Labour. In the course of the years it has given its opinion to the Government and Government bodies in at least 2,000 cases. It was found that the Government lent a ready ear to the combined opinion of industry by following much of this advice either wholly or partially. A consequence of this has been that good relations have been created with ministries and other Government bodies.

Numerous are the fields in which this advice has been given in the course of the years. Reference may be made to wage determination and the furtherance of productivity, and related subjects such as job classification, wage scales, merit ratings, and further labour legislation, including

the right of dismissal, social insurance, joint consultative committees, the organization of society, vocational training and sick funds. The Foundation of Labour also laid down the bases for a law relating to unemployment.

In the preparation of advice in the field of social insurance, and also in other fields, mixed committees are repeatedly set up. These consist of representatives of the Foundation and senior Government officials. This has enabled intensive contact, which has expedited the work.

In the course of the years the Foundation of Labour has been closely concerned with wage policy. As explained in the chapter entitled Wage Policy, the greater part of wages are regulated in collective labour agreements. These must be approved by the Board of Government Conciliators. However, the decision is not taken until the Foundation of Labour has stated its opinion. If agreement has been reached by the parties in a branch of industry on certain changes in wages and other working conditions, these are discussed by both parties with the Foundation of Labour. The Foundation judges the changes in particular by the importance which they have for the whole country. Practice has shown that agreement is nearly always reached between the parties and the Foundation of Labour. After the discussions have been concluded, the Foundation draws up its report to the Board of Government Conciliators. In the great majority of cases such a report is unanimous.

The supreme body of the statutory industrial organizations is the Social and Economic Council. The Council is at the same time an advisory body to the Government in the social and economic field. Contrary to the expectations of some, this has not led to the abolition of the Foundation of Labour; the work has been divided between these two bodies. The Foundation has been left special problems of wage policy, such as negotiating on and arbitrating in problems in the social field, whilst the Social and Economic Council has the principal tasks of making reports and giving advice on the general problems of this wage policy. But in practice the dividing line is not always a clear one.

Joint Consultative Committees

About 75 years ago the first bodies representing the employees were set up in a number of concerns in the Netherlands. They gave concrete shape to the idea which was beginning to gain ground here and there in those days that business ought to be more than a source of profit for its owner and a place where the worker earned his money.

This idea of the business concern as a harmonious working community gradually developed further. In the course of the years – and particularly after the First World War – organizations representing the staff came into being in numerous large and small firms. They were voluntary and were characterized both in structure and in name by considerable variety. For instance sometimes they were called 'cadres', in other cases 'works councils' or 'labour committees'. After the Second World War the need was generally felt for a legal basis to be given to the consultation and cooperation between employer and employees within the concern. And so the Joint Consultative Committees Act came into being in 1950.

In order to realize the most harmonious working community, the Act – apart from certain exceptions – imposes in principle on every employer who has in his service more than 25 workers entitled to vote the obligation to set up a joint consultative committee.

The Act speaks of joint consultative committees and not of cadres, works' councils, or the like, to stress the fact that these bodies are not concerned with representing the staff against the employer, but, on the contrary, are organs of joint consultation – with the accent on joint – to which the head of the concern belongs along with his staff.

According to the generally worded description given in the Act, the function of the joint consultative committee is to do all it can to help the concern operate as well as possible, whilst recognizing the independent function of the employer. The joint consultative committee is principally envisaged as a body of consultation between the employer on the one hand and the representatives of the staff on the other.

The Act does not give the committee powers of decision.

The ultimate right of decision regarding the matters dealt with by the committee is and remains in the hands of the employer.

Besides this general description of the function of the committee, the Act summarizes the following concrete powers which the joint consultative committee possesses in any case for performing its function:

- a. dealing with the wishes, complaints and comments brought to the notice of the committee by the staff, insofar as these are of importance to the position of the employees in the concern;
- b. consultation with regard to the fixing of holidays, duty rosters, shifts and breaks, insofar as this work is not done at a higher level per branch of industry;
- c. supervising observance of the conditions of employment applicable for the concern;
- d. supervising observance of the legal regulations for the protection of the employees in the concern, and also supervising the installations in the interests of safety, health and hygiene, and the canteens and changing rooms.

participating in the administration of institutions attached to the firm for the benefit of the employees, if and insofar as this has not been provided for by law in another way; advising and making suggestions with regard to measures which may contribute to an improvement of the technical and economic development of the firm.

- in order to make it possible for the joint consultative committee to exercise its powers, the Act imposes a number of obligations on the employer. Thus the employer, insofar as it is in keeping with his independent function recognized by the same Act, is obliged:
- fully to assist the joint consultative committee and in particular to give it all the information which the committee needs to fulfil the functions allotted to it and to exercise the powers granted it;
- to inform the joint consultative committee periodically about the economic developments in the firm.

Furthermore, in those firms whose working hours, etc., are specially regulated, the employer should consult the committee before drawing up, amending or supplementing these regulations. With regard to the composition of a joint consultative committee, the Act gives a number of organizational regulations. The employer or his representative is ex officio chairman of the committee. The Act allows the size of the committee to increase in proportion to the size of the concern. Not counting the employer/chairman, who is an ex officio member, a joint consultative committee has not less than 3 and not more than 25 employee members.

The members of the committee, with the exception of the chairman, are elected by those employees in the concern who are eligible to vote.

Employees eligible to vote are those who have attained the age of 21, have been employed by the concern for an uninterrupted period of at least one year and have not been disqualified from voting by the courts.

Persons eligible for election to the committee are those who are themselves eligible to vote, are 18 years of age and have been in the service of the concern for an uninterrupted period of at least three years. In its regulations the joint consultative committee can lay down different criteria regarding age and length of service with regard to both eligibility to vote and eligibility for election.

Since in practice certain officials of a firm, though legally employees, must be regarded rather as representatives of the employer in view of their managerial positions, the Act makes it possible to exclude such senior staff both from voting and from standing for election.

The method of nomination for a joint consultative committee is regulated as follows. The right to nominate candidates is granted in the first place to employees' unions which are considered suitable by the industrial committees. (The industrial committees are bodies set up for each branch of industry to supervise the joint consultative committees.) If the composition of the staff of the concern is such as to make it desirable, the industrial committee may, however, lay down the extent to which candidates can be nominated by persons not belonging to a union. Finally, the industrial committee can, if necessary, make entirely different arrangements, subject to the approval of the Social and Economic Council.

The list of candidates must be drawn up in such a way that the ultimate composition of the joint consultative committee will represent every category of staff, e.g. both manual and white-collar workers, as much as possible.

The members of a joint consultative committee retire simultaneously every two years. They are immediately eligible for re-election.

In the implementation of the Joint Consultative Committee Act organized industry plays an important part. For instance, the Social and Economic Council has set up industrial committees composed on a basis of parity of delegates of what are considered to be representative employers' and employees' organizations, for a large number of branches of industry.

Dispensation has been granted to the building industry, the ocean shipping business, the Netherlands Railways and the State Mines. By order of the Ministry of Social Affairs various Government undertakings are also exempt from the provisions of the Act, since in these organizations the staff are represented in a special manner.

Besides the work done by the Social and Economic Council in the implementation of the Joint Consultative Committees Act, in particular the Committee for Joint Consultative Committees formed from among its midst, reference should also be made to the function of the industrial committees in this respect. These industrial committees have a comprehensive task. Some of their functions are:

- a. approving the rules of procedure of the joint consultative committees, and any amendment of or addition to them;
- b. making proposals to the Social and Economic Council with regard to granting more powers to the joint consultative committees coming under them than are specified by the Act;
- c. approving a provision concerning the size of the joint consultative committee which deviates from that contained in the Act;
- d. indicating to the employees' organizations who is entitled to submit lists of candidates for the elections to the joint consultative committees;
- e. making deviating regulations with regard to nomination, if the circumstances render this necessary or desirable;
- f. arbitrating on disputes which might arise concerning the powers of the joint consultative committees or the interpretation of the rules of procedure;
- g. finally, generally speaking, furthering proper implementation of the Act in the branch of industry concerned.

It will be evident from the list that the industrial committee occupies an important position as a supervisory body with regard to the joint consultative committees.

If the decisions of the industrial committee are at variance with law or the public interest, they can be suspended in part or in whole or annulled by the Minister of Social Affairs.

For those branches of industry for which there is no special committee the Social and Economic Council set up a General Industrial Committee at the end of 1954. Furthermore, the Act states that in those branches of industry for which a Main Industrial Board or an Industrial Board is set up, the function of the committee automatically passes to the Board, and the committee is disbanded.

Starting from the idea that cooperation between employers and employees should not be the subject of compulsion, there are no penal sanctions attached to the obligation to set up a joint consultative committee.

Emigration

Policy

The Netherlands is undoubtedly the most densely populated country in the world: at present it averages 910 persons per square mile. In this century the population has risen sharply from 5.2 million in 1900 to over 11.7 million in 1962, and it is still increasing at the rate of 140,000 a year. It is estimated that without emigration the total population would be more than 14.3 million in 1980 and that in this twenty-year period the working population would increase from 4.3 million to well over 5.5 million.

This rapid increase in the population gives rise to special economic and spatial problems in the Netherlands. Consequently the Government considers emigration desirable, and it is pursuing a positive emigration policy to help solve those problems which require long-term planning. This policy is one under which emigration is accompanied by measures to smooth its path, but not one which canvasses for emigrants. Being a long-term policy, it will not be interrupted by temporary and changing circumstances such as boom periods and demands on the home labour market. The arguments for continuing a positive emigration policy during periods of labour shortage are mainly the desirability of maintaining the international contacts existing in this field and the fact that it is advantageous that intending emigrants and persons who have already emigrated can rely on such a continuity.

The Government is of the opinion that, by giving the emigrants an opportunity to start a new life elsewhere in the world and by enabling them to develop their potentialities, which was not possible in their own country, it makes a contribution which benefits not only the emigrant and the Netherlands as a whole, but also the receiving country, whose general prosperity is promoted by the influx of these emigrants.

Organization

When around 1950 the Government decided to set in motion an active emigration policy by providing assistance to people wishing to settle overseas, the implementation of the Government's emigration policy was entrusted to an organization in which both the Government and the private emigration bodies participated. The organization of emigration from the Netherlands is based on the Emigration Institutions Act, which came into force in 1952 and established the cooperation between the Government and these private bodies.

Under this Act the Minister of Social Affairs and Public Health is in charge of emigration affairs and bears the political responsibility. The Government Commissioner for Emigration works under his immediate jurisdiction and is responsible for general control of emigration on behalf of the State, for cooperation between the Government and the social organizations concerning themselves with emigration and for emigration relations with receiving countries.

The Netherlands Emigration Service, as the central body, is responsible for the administration of emigration, and receives its instructions from the Government and the Emigration Board. The Emigration Board coordinates the work of the Government and the private bodies in the

field of emigration. This body constitutes the necessary forum for discussions on policy and the practical measures to be taken by the Emigration Service and the organizations dealing with applications for emigration. The Board is presided over by the Government Commissioner for Emigration and comprises representatives of the Government and of private organizations. The Emigration Council is the Minister's advisory body on general emigration affairs. The Council is composed of representatives of various ministries, persons who by virtue of their position or capacity hold a prominent position in the community and representatives of a number of private organizations and churches.

Finally, the Emigration Institutions Act recognizes both public and private bodies for handling applications for emigration. The private legal entities recognized are the General Emigration Organization, the Catholic Emigration Foundation, the Christian Emigration Organization, the Netherlands-South Africa Association and the Protestant Emigrants Assistance Foundation. The Government Employment Office is the public body appointed by the Minister of Social Affairs and Public Health to deal with applications.

Assistance to emigrants

The Netherlands Government takes the view that in principle every Dutch national is completely free to emigrate. Anyone who complies with the conditions may emigrate to the country of his choice, provided that he is eligible for admission to that country. The offices handling applications give information and advice to intending emigrants and prepare them by giving language and other courses. No influence is brought to bear in any way on the individual in making his decision; the greatest objectivity is observed when advice is given. When the decision has been made, the office handling the application collects the necessary papers on the intending emigrant and the file is sent to the Netherlands Emigration Service.

The Emigration Act of 1936, which lays down practical regulations, was drawn up in a period when emigration was almost entirely a private matter and the chief task of the Government was to protect emigrants by supervision. Since some provisions of this Act are out of date, a revision is under consideration.

When the emigrant satisfies the requirements for admission and the visa has been granted, he can apply for financial assistance. The Government helps the emigrant by making a contribution towards the fare to the country of destination and by paying him a certain amount for use on board and a sum of landing money from which the emigrant can defray his expenses for the first few days after arrival. This financial assistance by the State is governed by the Emigration Subsidy Regulations and a decree giving effect thereto. The emigrant himself only pays a personal contribution, which is based on his income tax assessment for the year preceding his departure, with a minimum of fls 100 per family and a maximum of fls 900 per person. In addition an arrangement has been made by which eligible emigrants may receive from their local authority a contribution towards the initial costs up to an amount set by that authority. In past years about 30% of the emigrants, mostly large families, have taken advantage of the latter arrangement.

Within the framework of bilateral and multilateral cooperation, measures have been taken jointly with some receiving countries and the Intergovernmental Committee for European Emigration to finance the transport of assisted Dutch emigrants.

Once the emigrant arrives in his new country, much of the Netherlands Government's responsibility for him ceases. The after-care in the initial period is mainly confined to help from the Dutch emigration officials abroad in the emigrant's search for work and housing. In his own interests the emigrant must learn to stand on his own feet as soon as possible and to seek contact with the population of the receiving country.

A typical feature of Dutch emigrants is their desire to set up in business for themselves. But generally it is no easy matter for the emigrant who is still a stranger in his new environment to obtain the necessary credits. The same problem arises in some countries for emigrant families who cannot obtain suitable accommodation at a rent they can afford and for whom the only solution is to buy a house. In order to assist the emigrants to obtain credits or loans for these purposes the Netherlands Government has created a credit guarantee scheme. Under this scheme a guarantee can be given to a person or institution granting a credit to a Dutch emigrant, who naturally must satisfy the usual requirements for obtaining credits.

Some figures

Since 1945 more than 390,000 Dutch emigrants have gone overseas with the aid of the Government to settle in the following countries:

Canada	144,000
Australia	116,000
United States	68,000
South Africa	30,000
New Zealand	21,000
Brazil	5,000
Rhodesia	2,000
Other countries	4,000
<hr/>	
Total	390,000

Mainly owing to the fact that in this period a large number of Dutch nationals returned from Indonesia, officially sponsored migration has only resulted in an emigration surplus of 140,000, or in other words the normal population increase in one year. In 1961, a boom year in the Netherlands, a total of only 14,155 people emigrated with the assistance of emigration institutions. The figure for the previous year was 24,335. Interest has repeatedly shifted from one immigration country to another, this being largely determined by ups and downs in the development of countries like Australia and Canada, and the special opportunities offered by the United States in recent years to repatriates from Indonesia. This is clearly shown by the development of emigration to these countries in relation to the total emigration from the Netherlands in the period from 1955 to 1961.

Emigration to Australia, Canada and the United States
(in percentages of total emigration)

Year	Number of emigrants	Australia	Canada	United States	Total (Australia, Canada and United States)
1955	29,631	46.3	22.5	13.5	82.3
1956	31,788	34.5	24.1	29.0	87.6
1957	30,421	22.1	38.5	29.8	90.4
1958	23,117	32.3	31.5	16.2	80.0
1959	22,489	37.0	23.7	23.7	84.4
1960	24,335	33.1	22.4	35.8	91.3
1961	14,155	29.7	12.8	42.9	85.4

In recent years emigration to New Zealand has remained constant at a level of approximately 1,300 persons a year; interest in emigration to South Africa and to Rhodesia has declined considerably since 1958, mainly as a result of political events in Africa.

Relatively few emigrants go to Brazil, but one aspect of this emigration is gaining in significance. The cooperative agricultural settlements founded in that country by Dutch emigrants have been extended, aided largely by credits from the Governments of Brazil and of the United States.

By virtue of their positive qualities most Dutch emigrants manage to make a success of their emigration from the point of view of adjustment and material prosperity. Their spirit of enterprise has led to their setting up in business for themselves in a variety of enterprises and occupations, notably in agriculture, the services sector, foodstuffs and the building trade. Needless to say, adjustment to the new life is not always painless. Nevertheless, the percentage of Dutch emigrants who return home is low in comparison with that of other nationalities. It varies between 10 and 15 %. When families come back home, this is generally due to the wife's homesickness. However, it should be borne in mind that at least 50 % of those who return emigrate again after some time. The largest percentage of permanent repatriates is found among elderly married couples without children. The people re-emigrating are generally the wives and children of men who have remained in the receiving country and have sent their families back home ahead of them.

Public Health

An introduction to the organization of public health in the Netherlands should perhaps begin with the statement that it is based on very close cooperation between the public authorities – national, provincial and local – and a large number of voluntary agencies. This holds true especially in the field of preventive care, for instance maternal and child health, tuberculosis control, mental health, etc. Out-patient clinics and consultation bureaus in a wide variety of preventive medical activities are organized and run by private associations, subsidized by and under the close supervision of the public health authorities to guarantee a high standard of work.

Another special feature is that much of this work is organized on a denominational basis. There are for instance Protestant and Roman Catholic associations side by side with non-denominational ones. A similar situation is to be found in the organization of hospitals.

This makes for a rather complicated system, in which overlapping is unavoidable. On the other hand it has, on the whole, the great advantage of stimulating an active interest of the people in health work, which perhaps outweighs the disadvantages of the system.

In the central Government responsibility for public health rests with the Minister of Social Affairs and Public Health. The Ministry (Directorate of Public Health), is mainly concerned with legal and administrative matters. Contrary to the situation in many other countries, technicians (epidemiologists, medical statisticians, food chemists, pharmacists, sanitary engineers) do not belong to the staff of the Ministry proper. Under the Ministry comes a large technical service, consisting of separate sections, each headed by a chief officer, who has a number of experts at his disposal. This service is concerned with the following matters respectively: general public health, mental health, veterinarian health, pharmacy, food hygiene, environmental sanitation. This State service, whose task is one of advice, supervision and inspection, is operated through central offices in The Hague and regional offices in the various provinces.

In addition the central Government has at its disposal a number of institutes for various fields of public health: the National Institute of Public Health, the National Water Supply Institute, the National Institute of Water Purification, the National Institute for Pharmaco-Therapeutic Research. The National Institute of Public Health has laboratory facilities available for the control of contagious diseases, biologicals and pharmaceuticals, drinking water, foodstuffs and noxious agents in air, soil and water, including radioactive substances. Regional laboratories (16) are linked with the central reference institute on a contract basis. Laboratories for the production, purification and control of serums and vaccines are incorporated in the central institute at Utrecht.

Furthermore, there are a number of advisory boards available for advice on scientific and organizational matters. They are the Health Council, the Central Council for Public Health, the Nutrition Council and the Rehabilitation Council.

A national *blood transfusion service* has been established by the Netherlands Red Cross, with a modern central laboratory for production, research and training.

To complete the picture of services and institutions at the national level, mention should be made of the Health Research Council, which is part of the Organization for Applied Scientific Research. It is concerned with stimulating and coordinating research in the whole field of public health. One of the institutions under its supervision is the Netherlands Institute for Preventive Medicine, where research is conducted in general public health, occupational health, mental health and other fields. Others are an Institute for Sanitary Engineering, a Radio-biological Laboratory and an Institute for Medico-Physics.

The activities of the *provincial* authorities in health matters are rather limited in extent. They have one clearly defined responsibility: The Lunatics Act of 1884 – this out-of-date legislation is under revision – containing the provision that these authorities have to guarantee sufficient hospital facilities for mentally ill patients. Recently provincial councils for public health have been established, consisting of representatives of local authorities and of private associations. These councils, however, have no executive functions, their main task being to stimulate the development of health services and coordinate the work of the various existing agencies.

As far as the *municipal* authorities are concerned, it can be said that the larger municipalities – generally speaking those with 50,000 or more inhabitants – have established municipal health services under a medical director. However, only in the very large cities have these services developed to any considerable extent, including the management of some of the hospitals and a full range of preventive services. And even here private agencies are active in supporting and extending the work of the public authorities. In the small rural municipalities the family doctor is also engaged in work for the community. These municipalities cooperate in some fields of public health by establishing district services, for instance with respect to the water supply and provision of school health services. A regular district health service does not therefore exist.

Among the considerable number of *private agencies* which are active in all fields of public health, those with the widest scope are no doubt the Cross Associations. The largest one is non-denominational and is called the Green Cross; the other two are the White-Yellow Cross (Roman Catholic) and the Orange-Green Cross (Protestant). Almost 2,000,000 families are members of these organizations, which means that about two thirds of the population are covered. In the larger cities, where public services in the field of health are more extensive, a smaller percentage of the population belongs to these associations than in the more rural areas. The activities of the Cross Associations originated in the organization of bedside nursing. Gradually more and more emphasis has been laid upon prevention and rehabilitation, for instance maternal and child welfare, cancer control, rheumatism, care of the handicapped, etc. Health visiting in these and other fields is performed by nurses with a public health training who are employed by the local branches of the Cross Associations. It should be noted that the same nurses still do home nursing of the sick. With a few exceptions there is in the Netherlands no separation between these two tasks; home nursing and health visiting in various fields are performed by one and the same public health nurse. The total number of nurses employed by the Cross Associations is about 3,000. Usually these nurses operate from a health centre, where clinics may be held and where they work together with the local doctors.

The provincial Cross Associations, in which the local branches are brought together, organize services, clinics and dispensaries for a large variety of activities, according to the needs of the population. The medical and nursing personnel of these dispensaries are employed by the provincial Cross Associations. There are well over 1,900 baby clinics, largely directed by general



Mobile X-ray examination for tuberculosis.

practitioners. The 700 clinics for toddlers are directed by specialists. Similar arrangements exist for other branches of preventive medical care and rehabilitation. The aim of these centres is to promote the health of young children by a regular medical check. Advice is given on health care, nutrition, education. No treatment is given at the centre. Cases of ill health are reported to the general practitioner, who is responsible for closer investigation and/or treatment.

The national Cross Associations are concerned mainly with outlining general directions, with propaganda and information, and they are also entrusted in conformity with relevant legislation with the training of nurses for public health work after they have received their general nursing certificate in a hospital. Refresher courses and study cycles for this and other categories of personnel are regularly organized.

The Cross Associations are by no means the only private agencies working to prevent illness and promote health. There are numerous other organizations that set themselves tasks in specific fields. Mention may be made of the national associations for tuberculosis control (coordinating 47 district dispensaries and 80 auxiliary dispensaries), for maternal and child health, for control of rheumatism, for cancer control, to name only a few. They may in some instances have provincial and local branches with executive functions. To prevent overlapping and duplication of work, they often operate either in sections of the Cross Associations, or in close cooperation with them.

There is no reason why the work of prevention and rehabilitation in the field of mental health should in any way differ from that for physical health. Institutional care is being increasingly replaced by ambulatory treatment. The number of dispensaries in the field of mental health, for instance marriage guidance, child guidance and alcoholism, and of facilities for rehabilitation in sheltered employment, is gradually increasing. There is a definite tendency to place all these activities, organized by various private and public agencies, under the supervision of district social psychiatric services.

All this gives only a rough picture of the many activities of voluntary bodies in the field of health. No mention has been made, for instance, of the agencies which provide health colonies for children (57 health colony hostels with 5,000 beds), nor of the organization of maternity and services to ensure proper care of mother and child after confinement in the home, which is still a usual occurrence in the Netherlands, where only 20 % of the deliveries take place in hospital. As has been said before, all of this work is subsidized, in varying degrees, by the public authorities – municipal, provincial and state. In fact a considerable part of the funds comes from public funds, and only a minor part from contributions of the members of the various agencies. The quality of the work is closely supervised by the medical officers of the State Supervisory Service. *School health* in the Netherlands also falls under the Ministry of Social Affairs and Public Health, and not, as in many other countries, under the Ministry of Education. The relevant services are organized by the local authorities, large cities having their own service and smaller municipalities combining in districts. The school doctors, who are employed full-time, number 325. They supervise the infant and primary schools, and also, in increasing numbers, secondary and technical schools. The extension of these services to all secondary schools is under consideration. Universities have their own health services.

School dental health services are organized in a similar way; a shortage of dentists hampers satisfactory development of this activity.

Occupational health work started many years ago in large firms. The number of doctors employed



Dressing cubicles in an infants' welfare centre.

full-time in industry is rapidly increasing. Recent legislation has also made this service compulsory for smaller firms, which will now combine forces to establish a regular occupational health service. A considerable expansion of this field of health is therefore to be expected. Hygiene in factories is supervised and inspected by the medical department of the Labour Inspectorate under the Ministry of Social Affairs and Public Health.

Institutional care. Most hospitals are run by private organizations, many of them on a denominational basis. There are in total about 289 hospitals, with 53,400 beds, a quarter of which are in hospitals operated by public authorities. In accordance with the modern development in the relation between in- and out-patient care, there is a definite tendency to shorten the duration of stay in the hospital. In this respect shortage of nursing staff is also an important factor.

Some special hospitals for patients who need a long period of hospitalization have recently been erected. An active programme of rehabilitation is undertaken in these hospitals; they are not meant as nursing homes where patients will stay for an indefinite period of time.

A number of hospitals have geriatric wards, and here again much attention is being given to rehabilitation, in order to enable the patient to return home as soon as possible.

The aging of the population and unsatisfactory housing conditions have increased the need for homes for old people. However, institutionalization can often be prevented through home help services.

Since the last war, with its sharp rise of tuberculosis, the number of beds in tuberculosis sanatoria has been considerably increased to about 10,000 beds. In recent years, however, the incidence of tuberculosis has declined rapidly, and a large number of beds in sanatoria are now being used for other patients, about 6,000 beds remaining for the care of tuberculosis patients. The mental hospitals can accommodate about 32,500 patients.

Practically all patients are nowadays performing work of some kind, quite often of a productive character.

Furthermore, apart from the purely medical treatment which is given in these hospitals, there has been a strong development of rehabilitation methods.

Through this active programme of treatment, the duration of stay in the hospital has in many cases been considerably shortened.

For children with a very low grade of intelligence and other mentally retarded children who cannot be kept at home, there are institutions which can accommodate about 4,000 children. Some of these institutions have done remarkable work in educating the children to a more satisfactory way of life. The majority of mentally retarded children, however, attend special day schools.

Medical and Allied Personnel. Medical training may be obtained at the State Universities of Leyden, Groningen and Utrecht, at the Municipal University of Amsterdam, the Roman Catholic University of Nijmegen and the Free (Reformed) University at Amsterdam. In addition, students can receive clinical medical training at the Institute for Clinical Training at Rotterdam. Anyone who holds a secondary school diploma (science stream) can be admitted; usually this diploma is obtained at the age of 18 years. The duration of studies for a medical degree is from 7 to 8 years. The degree entitles the holder to practise medicine without restriction. Specialist training is under the supervision of a board consisting of representatives of the national medical association (Royal Netherlands Medical Association) and of the universities. The duration of training is from 4 to 8 years, depending on the speciality.



Every morning: Milk for every child in primary schools.

There are 13,000 medical practitioners in the Netherlands. About 4,500 are general practitioners (family doctors), and 3,400 are specialists; the remainder work as medical officers in various agencies or as assistants. The practice of medicine is completely free, and patients have their own choice of family doctor. As has been explained in other chapters of this volume, about 70 % of the population are covered by health insurance under the Sick Fund Act.

In recent years the Netherlands Institute for Preventive Medicine at Leyden has organized a special training course for physicians wishing to work in the field of public health. This course lasts 9 months and consists of two parts, a general part, which takes 4 months, and a second part of 5 months, during which the candidates receive special training in one of the following subjects: general public health, occupational health and maternal and child health. Similar facilities are under development at the Roman Catholic University of Nijmegen.

Dental surgery is taught at the Universities of Utrecht, Groningen and Amsterdam. Entrance requirements are similar to those for medical students, but admittance is limited by a shortage of space for practical training. The training takes 6 years. About 2,600 dentists practise in the Netherlands, which is considered to be insufficient, particularly in view of the need for preventive dental care for children.

Pharmaceutical chemists are trained at the Universities of Leyden, Groningen, Utrecht and Amsterdam; they number about 850.

About 40 % of all deliveries are handled by midwives (this means that, with the present birth rate in the Netherlands of over 20 per 1000 and a total number of about 250,000 births, roughly 100,000 confinements are taken care of by midwives). They receive training at the midwifery schools at Amsterdam, Rotterdam and Heerlen (Roman Catholic). Entrance requirements include 10 years' primary school education, and the duration of the course is 3 years. There are now 850 qualified midwives.

In this connection the maternity aids may be mentioned. Most deliveries take place at home, and in a large percentage of cases the assistance of a maternity aid is available for the care of mother and child for 10 days after the confinement. They receive a training of 15 months' duration, and number at the present time about 3,600. The student in maternity home help usually has no other education than primary school. She receives a special training of 15 months, of which 3 months are theoretical training in both domestic work and care of mother and newborn child, and the remaining 12 months are practical training in the families under close supervision of the qualified maternity nurse in charge of the local centre. They assist at the delivery or join the family immediately after the confinement, thus being able – which is of special importance for the problem of perinatal mortality – to take care of the newborn child from the first moment onwards, especially in the decisive first hours and days after birth.

The training of nurses – an in-service training – takes place in the hospitals. During the hospital training the probationer nurses work under the direction of qualified nurses, as paid employees. A minimum of 10 years primary school education is required, and the training lasts three to four years. After that time special courses can be followed for maternity nursing, nursing of children and public health nursing.

In the hospitals there are 13,000 registered nurses and 12,000 student nurses.

Special schools have recently been established providing advanced training for more senior positions in the field of nursing.



There are training facilities for various groups of auxiliary personnel, such as medical analysts, X-ray assistants, physiotherapists, and others.

From the above it will be seen that the functions of sanitary engineers and sanitary or public health inspectors are not as well defined in the Netherlands as in some other countries. Engineers in charge of water supplies and purification usually work in departments which have little or no connection with public health departments. They are civil engineers who, during their studies at one of the Technological Universities, receive some training in hygiene and public health. Only recently a Department of Sanitary Engineering was established at the Technological University of Delft. With regard to sanitary inspectors, their equivalent may be found in the services which are in charge of food hygiene; their duties are, however, more limited than those of their foreign colleagues.

Environmental Sanitation. The establishment of water works has been strongly stimulated by the central and provincial authorities. Research and planning are done by the National Water Supply Institute. Generally speaking, large cities have their own water works, whereas rural areas are served by district supplies. Today there are about 30 district supplies out of a total number of some 180 water works. About 95% of the total population now have their premises connected to a public water supply. The total quantity of water delivered yearly recently exceeded 500 million m³.

The central Government has set standards with which all water works installations must comply. Hygienic control of public water supplies is carried out by the state pharmaceutical officers.

Waste water is purified by 195 installations all over the country.

The litter collected by the municipal cleansing departments is destroyed or turned into compost. This is done by 10 installations, which are often operated jointly by a number of municipalities. Hygienic and social aspects of housing are often not given the attention they deserve; in matters of housing and town planning health authorities are not sufficiently consulted.

Food Hygiene. It can be said in general that the food industry has reached a satisfactory level of development with regard to hygienic conditions; many industries have their own control laboratories. As far as milk and dairy products are concerned, pasteurized milk is increasingly finding exclusive application, and, furthermore, Dutch cattle are free from tuberculosis, whilst foot and mouth disease is completely under control. Legal measures make it possible to eliminate persons who excrete bacilli from food concerns, public eating places, and the like. The use of food additives is strictly controlled.

There are in the country 16 district food control stations staffed by chemists, sanitary inspectors and analysts.

Slaughtering of animals is done only in public slaughterhouses, where meat is inspected by veterinary surgeons, supervised by inspectors.

State of Health. It is difficult to assess the factors to which the lengthening of the average expectation of life in the Netherlands – from less than 40 years in the middle of the nineteenth century to more than 70 years at the present time – is due. The decline in the death rate of infants and children, which has mainly influenced this lengthening of the expectation of life, is certainly due in some measure to medical prophylaxis and better attendance, to maternity care, the restriction of employment of women and the prohibition of child labour, to the improvement of housing

conditions and nutrition, to the combating of poverty and to general hygiene, in short to a variety of scientific and social forces.

General mortality is nowadays at 7 per 1000 inhabitants; infant mortality is well below 20 per 1000 live births. Tuberculosis mortality has decreased rapidly since the war, and is now at the very low figure of 3 per 100,000 persons. Morbidity of tuberculosis – the annual number of new cases, including relapses – is 60 per 100,000 people.

The importance of infectious diseases in general has been considerably reduced. The programme of vaccination includes smallpox, diphtheria, tetanus and whooping cough, and poliomyelitis. It should be noted that, with the exception of smallpox to a certain extent, none of these vaccinations is compulsory. Apart from infectious diseases it is difficult to obtain figures showing the incidence of illness. Some data are available for workers in industry, and they show that the number of workers absent from their work through sickness can be estimated at about 70,000 daily. The fact that the postwar figures for absenteeism are still higher than before the last war is an indication that one should be careful about forming an opinion about the state of health and, moreover, raises the question as to what sociological and psychological influences affect the health situation.

As far as nutrition is concerned, regular surveys show that this is satisfactory, apart from minor deficiencies in some groups of the population.

Housing has not yet recovered from the effects of the war. Notwithstanding an ambitious programme for the construction of low-cost dwellings, there is still a considerable shortage of housing.

In this densely populated country – almost 12 million inhabitants, 900 per square mile – much attention has to be given to the conservation and development of recreational facilities, which are so important for the mental health of the people.

General

Social work in the Netherlands, as in many other countries, is of very long standing, but it was not until the 20th century was underway that this work acquired its present import and character. Formerly it lay mainly in the field of religious and private charity, and concentrated on certain groups, such as neglected children, unmarried mothers, old persons and delinquents. It was the radical social changes about the middle of the previous century (the Industrial Revolution) one consequence of which was a rapidly growing mass poverty, which first compelled a deeper study of the distress suffered and rendered more efficient methods of relief necessary. Since 1900 the Netherlands has built up a widespread system of social insurance acts and related provisions so as to create greater social security for large groups of the population, or to protect them against the financial consequences of certain circumstances, such as illness, unemployment, old age, etc. Owing to the growing number of these social acts and provisions, which are listed in preceding chapters of this publication, the once wide field of material charity in its earlier form became more and more limited.

But simultaneously with this development there have grown since the beginning of this century – side by side with and often as a necessary adjunct to the social insurance acts and provisions mentioned above – all kinds of forms of systematic aid of a more individual trend, which we summarize under the name of 'social work'. One of the typical aspects of this social work is that the material element of assistance no longer occupies the foreground. The stress rather lies on intangibles (guidance, mediation, advice, etc.). The development outlined above is reflected in the history of the Poor Relief Act.

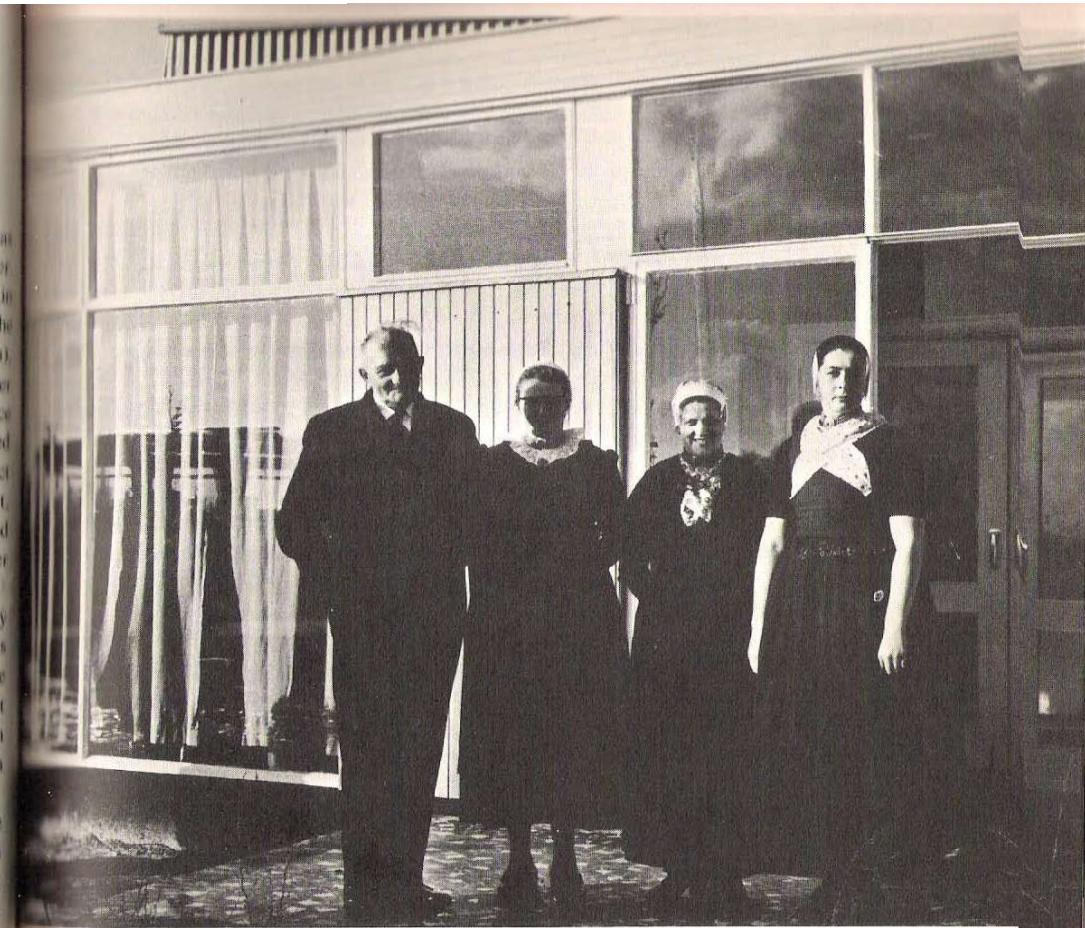
Whereas the Act of 1854 laid down that public assistance could be granted only in cases where it was absolutely unavoidable, the Act of 1912 – the one still in force – is more positive in purport and is elevating in nature, insofar as it embodies the idea that the public interest is best served not by leaving poor persons in a state of dependence but by elevating them out of this state to social independence.

In accordance with a centuries-old tradition the Poor Relief Act of 1912 puts aid by the churches and private bodies and persons first and foremost, with public assistance in a subsidiary role, whilst the Act has also furthered coordination between the various institutions in this field by setting up the Social Councils as local coordinative bodies.

Development since 1940

Social work received a considerable stimulus towards further growth during and especially after the Second World War. The horrors of war had brought people closer together and made them more alive to each other's distress.

Homemakers' services quickly sprang up over the whole of the Netherlands. The break-up of many families during the occupation had given rise to the formation of teams of young women in



Traditional costumes are still worn on special occasions even where they are no longer in daily use, as is shown in this picture of the opening of the new village centre in Oosterwolde (province of Gelderland). About 190 village and community centres were built with Government subsidy after the Second World War. This has put new life into local clubs and associations.

the southern part of the country, which had already been liberated. These young women were trained in domestic science and social work, and immediately after the north of the country had been liberated they were put to work there. It was then found how important the assistance of such persons can be in difficult family circumstances. At first the Government subsidized only homemakers' services, by which efforts are made to prevent the break-up of a family, owing to the fact that the housewife is incapable of running her household herself, because of illness or inability. Later home help services were also made eligible for a grant. In this form of social work aid is given to the housewife, who herself remains responsible for housekeeping. Homemakers' services are promoted by specially trained staff under the leadership of a certificated women social worker, and are applied where there are social or medical reasons for them.

It may be mentioned in this respect that, whilst the Government subsidizes homemakers' services generously, the executive side of the work is in the main in the hands of church and private bodies. The same applies to the various other forms of social work. This is a typical characteristic of social work in the Netherlands, which is extremely deeply rooted in the population themselves.

This finds expression in a number of ways, prominent among which is the readiness of many private persons to help in this work in an administrative or executive function. The Government then ensures that the work can be done properly by giving generous financial support and by laying down conditions. These conditions mainly cover requirements relating to the professional staff employed and to the forms of organization. This subsidization must be regarded as a directed administrative policy.¹⁾

Besides homemakers' services, other forms of social work aimed at the individual and his family developed or developed further after 1940. This 'individual social work' was for the greater part specialized, i.e. it was directed towards individuals or families with problems which demand a specialized approach in some form or the other. Examples of this are social work for the physically disabled, for the mentally deficient, for unmarried mothers, school social work, etc. Social work in industry also developed rapidly. More and more firms engaged a woman social worker to help the employees in their difficulties, to advise them on where to obtain assistance and generally to stimulate good human relations. Within a few years the number of these social workers had multiplied by five. In the war rural social work expanded greatly.

Within this framework, there developed alongside the various forms of specialized social work for the first time a form of general social work which in principle is directed towards all individuals' families in need of some form of assistance or the other. Both specialized and general social work are counted as individual social work.

Organization

The organizational structure of social work also developed apace after the war. Nationally the Netherlands now has the general institutions of social work, which may be classified according to denomination (Catholic, Protestant and Humanist) and also according to special functions. Members of this latter group include the Central Council for Homemakers' Services, the National Federation for Child Welfare, the Association of Probation Institutions, the Central

¹⁾ A brief summary of the principal subsidy regulations at present in force and emanating from the Ministry of Social Work is given at the end of this chapter.

Association for Care of the Disabled and the Netherlands Federation for Care of the Aged. Many of these national bodies, whose principal function is a coordinative one, have their provincial and local branches, often with their own independent governing bodies. Besides these, there also came into being the various Foundations for Social Work, which promote at provincial level collaboration between the various church and private organizations and between these and the public authorities, whilst they furthermore offer all kinds of service to these bodies. At local level Social Councils have been operating as bodies of collaboration in a number of local authorities since 1912. The blanket organization for the national institutions is the National Council for Social Work, which amongst its other functions plays a very important part as a study and advisory centre at national level. The address of the National Council is 146, Stadhouderslaan, The Hague.

In the Government sector mention should be made of the institution – in 1952 – of a separate Ministry of Social Work. The principal function of this Ministry, which since 1956 has been headed by the first woman minister of the Netherlands, Dr M. A. M. Klompé, is to promote social work by coordinating, stimulating and subsidizing it.

As explained above when discussing homemakers' services, the subsidy policy of the Ministry should be seen as a directed administrative policy. Partly as a result of its policy, general social work has been able to develop strongly in recent years and closer collaboration has come about between the institutions for general social work and those for specialized social work.

In the initial period of the new Ministry emphasis was laid on study and research, to prepare a policy directed towards systematic furtherance of social work. Building on the results of study and research, preparations were then made for – or a start was made with respectively – social planning, for instance in areas with special structure changes and in what are known as development areas.

Social Planning and Community Organization

After World War Two the realization grew in the Netherlands, in a more or less close relation to social work, that in dynamic circumstances and situations it may be necessary to devote attention not only to the individual and the family but also to the wider context of the local and regional community in which man lives and works. A rapid process of industrialization in the towns and in the country, and also agricultural reforms in large parts of the Netherlands (reallocation of holdings, increase in the size of farms, mechanization of farming, etc.) brought about their train considerable changes within a short time, both in the external appearance of the environment and the countryside and in the desires, the behaviour and the habits of people. Migration from the country to the towns increased greatly, and around the cities new residential districts shot up like mushrooms. In this light it will be understandable that adjustment problems played a much greater part than before, not only for the individual, but also for whole groups of the community.

Consequently, under the name of social construction/reconstruction, systematic activities were undertaken for the first time with the aim of vigorously encouraging the positive and active adjustment of groups and even entire local and regional communities. Dutch social construction/reconstruction now comprises a number of methodical incentives, each of which contributes in its way towards inducing self-activity in the local and regional communities with regard

to topical problems in their community of a social, cultural and socio-hygienic nature. Instances of such activities are social group work, neighbourhood house work, social information and advice in rural communities, self-examination, etc.

Dutch social construction/reconstruction has been able to develop in particular with regard to special social and cultural problems which occurred in the development and problem areas. These are areas on which the Government has focused its attention because of their considerable arrears in many respects. This attention has involved economic, socio-cultural and socio-hygienic measures. It was soon realized that in these areas economic incentives would not have the desired effect if a proportionate amount of attention were not also paid to other important aspects of the local and regional communities located there.

In social planning the Netherlands authorities, in collaboration with private institutions, have given form to a system of social construction/reconstruction which can be regarded as integrated with current or expected economic and technical changes in the problem areas.

Coordination and integration of economic and social measures, provisions and activities are aimed at guaranteeing a balanced economic and social development of the problem areas.

The Combating of Asociality in the Netherlands

The question of the problem families has been receiving attention in the Netherlands for many years now.

It concerns those families which in social life display serious departures from the generally accepted patterns of behaviour.

Such departures relate among other things to neglect of the home, failures in the parental educational task, inefficient spending of the family income as a result of an incorrect consumption pattern, inability to settle down to a job or work-shyness on the part of the husband or wage-earner, aggressive or other behaviour of the husband, wife or children, repeated criminality, sexual misconduct, abuse of alcohol, etc.

The background to these departures is usually formed by influence of a psychosomatic nature (e.g. weak mental powers) and by very divergent social stress factors (e.g. generations of poverty, marked social isolation from the neighbourhood, etc.). Often there is a combination of these backgrounds.

At first more satisfactory accommodation for these families was regarded as the principal factor in their adjustment. In a number of cities special blocks of dwellings were constructed for a number of these families, for instance in Amsterdam and The Hague.

There was a resident woman inspector in these groups of dwellings, who for instance made sure that the children went to school and kept the young people from getting out of hand, and who also tried to further membership of clubs, etc. During and in particular after World War Two the view grew that this was a problem which required tackling from a number of sides.

The importance of good accommodation for these families continued to be realized. This found expression among other things in arrangements made by the Ministry of Housing and Building, allowing of financial facilities for extra provisions which were required in the homes of these families. In incidental cases the Ministry of Social Work also cooperated in the provision of rent allowances, etc. The broader approach which developed in the years after the war – during which the importance of good accommodation continued to be recognized – was based on



Dr Marga Klompé, the first Netherlands woman to become a Cabinet Minister (appointed 1956), initiated regular consultations on family problems.

In 1961 consultations were held at The Hague on community organization within the framework of economic and technical development projects.

The photograph shows: The Ambassador of Switzerland to the Netherlands, Dr. E. de Haller; the British Parliamentary Under-Secretary of Health, Miss Edith Pitt; the French Minister of Health and Population, Mr. Bernard Chenot; the Netherlands Minister of Social Work, Dr Klompé; the Belgian Minister of Health, Dr J. Custers, and the Italian Parliamentary Under-Secretary of Labour and Social Affairs, Mr C. Pezzini.

more direct approach to the most important departures, such as the drift from job to job, neglect of the home, incorrect consumption pattern and shortcomings in the upbringing of the children. This broader approach generally included a highly technical provision of assistance, while moreover influencing of the families in accordance with socio-pedagogic methods won more and more ground.

In various places in the Netherlands foundations were set up at the initiative of both the local authorities and private and church organizations, which made this multilateral approach to problem families their task.

The Ministry of Social Work made arrangements for the granting of financial aid to this local work. This work is often financially supported by the local authorities as well.

The problem families are not infrequently to be found in historically developed concentrations (for instance in old-fashioned residential districts) and in a number of cases in deliberately created concentrations ('residential schools'). In the presence of such concentrations of problem families the latter are usually tackled by institutions for specialized family and district work which possess a staff.

Repatriates

In the former Netherlands East Indies about 260,000 Netherlands nationals lived before 1940. It may be assumed that a good 60 to 70 per cent of these belonged to the category of Netherlands nationals of Indonesian descent. After the war these numbers declined to about 220,000. Since 1945 tens of thousands of Netherlands nationals have left Indonesia to come to the Netherlands. But many of these later returned to Indonesia to work for both Dutch and foreign companies there. In the years soon after the transfer of sovereignty (December 1949) a real exodus took place, when among other groups practically the whole Royal Netherlands East Indies Army was transferred to the Netherlands.

As a result of the new campaign against Netherlands nationals in Indonesia in December 1951 tens of thousands again left Indonesia for the Netherlands by plane and by boat. From 1945 up to and including 1960 a total of approximately 264,000 repatriates from Indonesia had arrived in the Netherlands, 44,000 of these since December 1957.

It is of great importance that these repatriates be absorbed in the community as quickly as possible. This has already been achieved in the case of many who repatriated before 1957. The group of 44,000 who have arrived since then, however, confronts the Ministry of Social Work with special problems. From the social standpoint the problem would not be so great if those concerned were solely Netherlands nationals born and bred in the Netherlands. But there are considerable differences within the group of repatriates from Indonesia. This group can be broken down as follows:

1. Repatriates, born and bred in the mother country, who were temporarily employed in Indonesia;
2. Repatriates, born and raised in Indonesia, but highly Western in their outlook;
3. Repatriates, who – whilst remaining aware that they are Netherlands nationals – have undergone a considerable influence from their Oriental environment.

The last group of repatriates is completely foreign to life in the Netherlands. Without hardly any transition they find themselves placed in quite different circumstances and in an entirely



Over 20,000 Amboinese – former members of the Royal Netherlands East Indies Army, and their families – live in camps in the Netherlands. Now that their temporary stay in Europe is likely to be protracted they are gradually being accommodated in permanent dwellings. The picture shows Wyldemarck Camp in Gaasterland (province of Friesland).

different climate from what they are used to. And there is an additional difficulty, and a serious one, namely the absence of material means, since many arrive in the Netherlands destitute and without any means of support.

In order to make reception of the repatriates in the Netherlands as smooth as possible, the Government – in close cooperation with the Central Committee for Church and Private Action on behalf of Repatriates (address 19, Herengracht, The Hague) – has taken a large number of measures, on the ground of which suitable assistance is offered in coordination under the ultimate responsibility of the Ministry of Social Work.

This assistance began on board ship, whilst special attention was of course paid to the health of the repatriates. Special homes were fitted out for the approximately 2,000 old persons and chronic invalids. Moreover, places were found for a number of mentally deficient and other patients.

The problem of housing for the healthy repatriates must find its final solution in the allocation to these repatriates of dwellings of their own. The Netherlands, too, is faced with the great problem of a housing shortage, so that the allocations can only come gradually. By way of temporary provisions many repatriates have been accommodated in what are called contract boarding houses. If a repatriate is allocated a house, he can receive an interest-free loan for the furnishing of his home. Credits are also be granted to help make repatriates economically self-supporting.

It is beyond the scope of the present publication to go into further details of all the measures taken. The greatest problem is that of assimilation. To make the repatriates more acquainted with social conditions in the Netherlands special attention is paid to domestic guidance, such as dietetics, knowledge of commodities and budgeting. This guidance is chiefly left to the denominational organizations, which are subsidized by the Ministry of Social Work. Nevertheless, it must be expected that it may perhaps take years before it can be said that this group of Netherlands nationals has been absorbed in the Dutch community.

The Amboinese

An entirely different group of the population which came to the Netherlands from the former Netherlands East Indies is formed by the Amboinese, who come from the islands of the South Moluccas. For three centuries of Dutch rule in Indonesia they constantly proved themselves to be the most loyal supporters of the Dutch Crown. Part of the former Royal Netherlands East Indies Army consisted of Amboinese troops. After the transfer of sovereignty (1949) Amboinese soldiers and their families were brought to the Netherlands in the interests of their safety.

In the course of 1951 about 12,600 Amboinese arrived in the Netherlands. It was first intended that their stay in the Netherlands would be a temporary one. Partly in view of this the Amboinese were given accommodation by the State and housed in a number of centres where they were able to retain their own community entirely. However, the course of events has been such that their return to their own country is not to be expected in the near future. It is therefore being examined at present to what extent it would be possible to absorb the Amboinese more directly in Dutch society. Now, as a result of a large excess of births, about 20,000 Amboinese are living in some

70 centres run by the Ministry of Social Work. Employment has been found for most heads of families. Hundred per cent State care is no longer applied; this care is now confined to accommodation, infant teaching and the provision of vocational training facilities for the men and domestic guidance for the women.

Short Survey of the Principal Subsidy Regulations in the Field of Social Work

General

The Government regulations for the subsidizing of social work summarized below are founded on budget items of the Ministry of Social Work approved by Parliament. The regulations used within the framework of directed administrative policy find application, insofar as the Minister considers this to be necessary.

Naturally conditions are made in the various regulations which are aimed at guaranteeing that public money is used effectively. These conditions relate to, among other things, the training and/or experience of the officials concerned in the work and the requirement, which generally finds expression in the subsidy percentage fixed, that the institutions must succeed in meeting part of the costs themselves (e.g. by voluntary contributions from private persons or by charges levied on affiliated member-organizations).

As regards the training of officials, in general the diploma of social worker from one of the day schools for social work is required as professional qualification. There are nineteen of these schools in the Netherlands. They follow on secondary education, and their diploma course lasts three years and four months. After graduating from these schools social workers can attend various other courses to qualify as specialized social worker. Besides the day schools, there are a number of socio-pedagogic courses for social worker, through the diploma awarded at the end of such courses does not rank as highly as that of the day schools.

In most cases the subsidy is expressed as a certain percentage of the salaries (with maxima fixed according to function) plus the social charges and a certain sum for cost of equipment. The general maximum applicable is that a Government subsidy is granted only insofar as many municipal and provincial subsidies received do not exceed 70% when taken together with the State subsidy. In certain cases a higher grant may be given in the development areas.

A study group of experts in the field of social work is at present engaged on deliberating on general subsidization problems in order to be able to make proposals at a later stage for statutory regulations covering State grants.

In order to avoid misunderstandings, it may be mentioned beforehand that besides these subsidy regulations numerous separate grants are fixed by appropriation acts. Examples of these are large sums for social work among caravan dwellers and vagrants, for the protection of girls and for domestic and family guidance, etc.

Subsidization of the Carrying-out of General Social Work

General social work – together with specialized social work one of the main forms of individual social work – is sometimes compared with the place of the general practitioner in public health. It has the task of detecting the symptoms of social difficulties and of disintegration in the various environments, and of diagnosing the existing social distress. It has both a curative and

a preventive function. It furnishes information, gives advice, supplies guidance in social difficulties of individuals and families and finally – if necessary – assists in the procurement of aid from specialized social work or from other bodies and institutions. Needless to say, officials who are often active in parishes and districts within the framework of church social work are required to be all-round in their abilities.

The subsidy percentage for the bodies referred to here is fixed at 30.

Subsidization of Bodies of Collaboration in Social Work on a General or Denominational Basis

National, provincial (or urban) and local bodies of collaboration, advice and guidance – on behalf of social work in an area or on behalf of separate types of work (or forms of work) within the same organization – which are engaged on administrative consultation, integration of activities and taking action, and also on the furtherance of the professional abilities of governing boards, voluntary workers and professional staff, may be subsidized for a certain number of officials.

In view of the fact that such organizations may be able to procure their own funds, the subsidy percentage is differentiated. It is namely 60, 40 and 30% respectively for national, provincial and local organizations. Coordination and consultation with institutions of another denomination is one of the conditions on which a grant is given.

Subsidization of the Provincial Foundations for Social Work

In each of the 11 provinces into which the Netherlands is divided a Provincial Foundation for Social Work has been set up. The specific tasks of these bodies include the following: the furtherance of coordination and consultation between the bodies of social work in the province, and between these and the authorities; carrying out social surveys; making advisory reports; calling on the services of existing organizations in the case of gaps in social work or setting up new organizations to fill these gaps.

The subsidy percentage is fixed at 45.

Subsidization of Community Organization

For some years now organizations in the Netherlands which make an important contribution in the local or regional community to the reorientation and adjustment of the population in rapidly changing circumstances have been able to receive a grant from the central authorities. However, the activities of these organizations have to meet certain standards or requirements. Grants are now given in particular to social group work, social information work in rural communities, village and neighbourhood house work and other forms of community (organization) work, and also social studies aimed at enhancing the success of these activities.

The extent to which these activities are directed towards the *problems* occurring in a certain local or regional community is naturally of vital importance. For instance, only those forms of social group work are subsidizable which in a given situation are essentially directed towards the social adjustment of the population or of certain groups to changing social or economic circumstances.

Subsidization of Rural Welfare Work

As a result of social structural changes in the country in connection with agricultural development schemes and other large-scale agricultural projects, consolidation of holdings or the opening-up of areas, social problems arise or threaten. These problems can be solved by social advice aimed at the rural population or be obviated by 'social escorting' provided in good time. Rural social organizations, such as associations of farmers, farmers' wives and agricultural workers, can receive for the activities referred to above a subsidy of 60 %. With regard to the officials it is laid down that these should be either agricultural engineers with a knowledge of sociology and sociography, or sociologists with experience in rural problems. The grant also extends to the costs of courses for voluntary workers.

These regulations are applied in conjunction with the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries.

Subsidization of Village and District Centres

Social development within a local community frequently proves to be adversely affected because club life is hampered by the absence of sufficient or suitable accommodation for club activities. In such cases clubs, local organizations or local branches of an organization in the social, spiritual, recreational or cultural field, as well as religious associations, may be assisted to found a village or district centre and fit it out with first essentials.

If the national authorities consider that there are sufficient grounds for such aid, a subsidy of 25 %, with maximum amounts fixed according to the number of inhabitants, may be granted towards founding such a centre and fitting it out with essentials on certain conditions (among others, with regard to possible mortgage loans and to making the centre available to all bona fide local associations).

It will be noted that this subsidy does not relate to operating costs. Subsidization in operating costs is possible only for social reasons, e.g. for neighbourhood work in old districts of a town or isolated regions where social deficiencies occur or where normal provisions of all kinds are lacking. For the subsidization of such neighbourhood work, including the case of passivity of a population faced with rapid industrialization, or a lack of social ties in new suburbs, there are separate arrangements which provide for an operating subsidy of not more than 40 %.

The Subsidization of Homemakers' and Home Help services

Something has already been said about the nature of homemakers' and home help services in the Netherlands. Understandably, both homemakers' and home services take the form of temporary aid. However, in order to give old persons and chronic invalids an opportunity to remain with their own family as long as possible, this aid loses its temporary nature when the housewife is 65 years old or is chronically sick. The same applies to men and women living alone. In many of these cases a few hours' help a day or a week will suffice, and this help can be given by women and girls who are not in a position to do full-time social work.

The Government subsidy is fixed at 30 % for homemakers' and 25 % for home help services.

Subsidization of Family Agencies

A family agency is a specialized agency whose function it is to deal with individual conflicts, difficulties and problems in the field of marriage or family life or other such personal problems. They are also active under other names, such as consultation bureaus for personal problems or bureaus for marital and family difficulties. The field of these institutions lies principally where the difficulties concerned require treatment from a team of specialists. These bureaus should not be confused with other institutions for social work, spiritual welfare or sexual guidance only, nor with pre-care and after-care clinics for mental diseases or institutes for psycho-therapeutic treatment. Nor do these bureaus generally deal with cases which lie in the field of health education bureaus or of the socio-medical consultation bureaus for alcoholics.

The family agencies are set up in such a way that experts in different fields, who are all specially trained or orientated with regard to problems arising among the clients of the bureaus, work together as a team. Needless to say, the members of the team have essentially to coordinate their psychological ideas and approach.

As this work is meant to supplement existing social work, the bureaus should endeavour to achieve the closest possible collaboration with local institutions of general and other social work, family welfare, child welfare, aid to discharged prisoners and mental health. In every case a psychiatrist and a specialized social worker are associated with the bureaus. The staff may also include a psychologist, a physician, a gynaecologist, a jurist and a clergyman or a spiritual adviser.

The subsidy percentage has been fixed at 30. Maximum fees are laid down for the services of certain experts.

Subsidization of Specialized Family Welfare and District Work

As was stated with regard to the problem families, the investigation into an effective approach to the combating of asocial behaviour is still in full swing. The particular nature of specialized family welfare and district work on the local plane has up to now led to subsidization by a percentage of the operating costs, this percentage being fixed separately for each institution. For the purpose of this subsidy operating costs include not only costs of personnel but also expenditure on social guidance of families in the form of courses and clubs, and expenditure on psychiatric, psychological, pedagogic and social advice. Special grants are possible towards the costs of purchasing or fitting out centres or rooms in the vicinity of dwellings or housing estates which are specially intended for the re-education of problem families. If the families cannot pay the rent of such dwellings, the allowance paid may also be subsidized.

The systematic and methodical influencing of a socially weak or socially unadjusted family is extremely varied in nature. To keep family life alive in these cases, or to restore it, or to render possible the adjustment of such families in a wider social sense, consultation and collaboration are required at local level with all eligible church and private organizations and also with local authorities.

The methods used by the institutions applying for subsidies should be such as to justify confidence in reasonable results.

Youth welfare institutions which carry out family welfare work aimed at combating asocial

behaviour may also receive a subsidy for their operating costs in this work. Allowance is made for, among other things, annual depreciation on camping and other equipment, furniture and fittings, etc. The subsidy percentage is 60 for national and 40 for local institutions.

Subsidization of Social Work for the Mentally Deficient

The weak-minded individual who, through some defect, does not have full use of his mental powers, experiences many difficulties in adjusting to daily life as a result of his defective personality structure, the more so now that society is subject to rapid and radical changes. Institutions which concentrate on the integration of the mentally deficient into society and for that purpose work closely together with social psychiatric services and the organizations of general social work may receive a grant towards their operating costs if their staff comply with special requirements of professional ability. The subsidy percentage has been fixed at 80 for national institutions and 40 for local ones doing the work.

Bibliography

ASSURANCE générale contre la vieillesse; publ. by the Ministry of Social Affairs and Public Health. The Hague, 1956. 22 pp. (Also in English and German: General Old Age Pensions Act, *Allgemeine Niederländische Altersversicherung*.)

GOCKEDAG, M. K. Die Betriebsunfallgesetze in Holland; Final report on and observations in the Netherlands from September 1 to January 5, 1953, under the United Nations Social Welfare Fellowship Programme; publ. by the Ministry of Social Work. The Hague, 1953. 32 pp. (Series B, No. 43.)

KNIPSCHEER, G. J. B. Die finanzielle Organisation der Arbeitslosenversicherung. Rome, 1959. 35 pp., tables (extract from: *Atti della II Conferenza internationale degli attuari e statistici delle sicurezza sociale*, Rome, October 1959). (Paper on the financing and historical development of unemployment insurance in the Netherlands.)

LABOUR Law in the Netherlands, May 1960. The Hague, 1960. 28 pp.

LEDEBOER, L. V. Medical Care Insurance in the Netherlands. Geneva, 1958. 12 pp. (Reprint from the Bulletin of the International Social Security Association, Sept. 1958.)

LUGT, P. VAN DER. Digest of Social Insurance in the Netherlands. Rotterdam, 1955. 21 pp.

MEY, A. V. M. Die versicherungsrechtliche Beurteilung der Silikose und Siliko-Tuberkulose in Holland. Heerlen, 1957. 7 pp. (Reprinted from 'Silikose-Symposion 1955'; special volume containing article on silicosis research.)

MONOGRAPHS on Social Security in the Netherlands; publ. by the International Social Security Association. Geneva, 1950. 27 pp. (included in: Proceedings of the Ninth General Meeting, pp. 253, 427 and 526.)

MUNTENDAM, P. Le contrôle dans l'incapacité de courte durée. (Archives belges de médecine sociale, hygiène, médecine du travail et médecine légale, Brussels, No. 1, January 1949, p. 41.)

SCOPE, THE, of the Municipal Social Services; publ. by the Association of Directors of Public Services and Social Welfare Institutions, Rotterdam, 1950. 66 pp. (German title: *Das Arbeitsfeld der städtischen sozialen Dienste*. Present name of the Association: Association of Directors of Public Bodies for Social Work (D.I.V.O.S.A.), Secretariat: Emmakade 50, Leeuwarden).

SICK-FUND Insurance in the Netherlands; ed. 1961; publ. by Ziekenfondsraad. Amsterdam, 1961.

SOCIAL Security in the Netherlands; publ. by the Ministry of Social Affairs and Public Health. The Hague, 1958. 17 pp. (French edition: *La sécurité sociale aux Pays-Bas*; German edition: *Die Sozialversicherung in den Niederlanden*.)

STELSELS van sociale zekerheid van toepassing op de werknemers in de kolenmijn- en ijzer- en staalindustrie in de Gemeenschap en in Groot-Brittannië; Vol. 2, incl. the Netherlands, publ. by the European Coal and Steel Community. Luxembourg (loose-leaf edition; also French, German and Italian editions).

VAID, K. N. Social Work in Industry; a Study in the Netherlands; publ. by the Institute of Social Studies. The Hague, Van Keulen, 1958. 14 pp. (Publications on Social Change, No. 15).

REGIMES complémentaires de sécurité sociale applicables aux travailleurs des industries de la Communauté; publ. by the European Coal and Steel Community. Luxembourg, 1959. 168 pp.

REGIMES de sécurité sociale applicables aux travailleurs des industries du charbon et de l'acier dans la Communauté et en Grande Bretagne; publ. by the European Coal and Steel Community. Vol. 2, incl. the Netherlands.

PETERS, A. Training of Dock Workers; publ. by the Foundation for Vocational Training in the Port of Rotterdam. Rotterdam, 1958.

MANUAL for selective placement in the Netherlands; publ. by the State Employment Office, Ministry of Social Affairs. The Hague, 1951. 105 pp.

SOZIALWERKSTÄTEN, Die; publ. by the Ministry of Social Affairs and Public Health, Social Assistance and Supplementary Employment Provisions Division. The Hague, 1956. 4 pp.

FORMATION professionnelle, La, dans les houillères des pays de la Communauté; publ. by the European Coal and Steel Community, High Authority, Luxembourg, 1956. 508 pp., ill., graphs, tables, maps (also a German edition).

FORMATION professionnelle, La, accélérée de la main-d'œuvre non-qualifiée ou semi-qualifiée; publ. by the European Organization for Economic Co-operation, European Productivity Agency. Paris, 1960. 496 pp. annexes, ill., tables.

MILL, A. N. VAN. Job Classification in the Netherlands. (Revue Internationale du Travail, Geneva, No. 2, 6 February, 1949.)

KNOOK, A. L. C. On Vocational Guidance in the Netherlands; publ. by the State Labour Office, The Hague, 1953. 23 pp.

HAAS, J. H. DE. Perinatal Mortality and Maternity Home Help in the Netherlands; publ. by the International Children's Centre, Paris, 1954. 21 pp. (Reprint from Neo-Natal Studies, Vol. III, No. 2, 1954.)

ETUDE comparative des sources du droit du travail dans les pays de la Communauté Européenne du Charbon et de l'Acier; publ. by the European Coal and Steel Community. Luxembourg, 1957. 153 pp.

EMIGRATION from Holland; facts, organisation, policy; publ. by the Netherlands Commissioner for Emigration. The Hague, 1951. 21 pp.

STEIGENGA, W. Industrialization-Emigration; the Consequences of Demographic Development in the Netherlands; publ. by the Research Group for European Migration Problems. The Hague, M. Nijhoff, 1955. 69 pp., bibliogr., graphs, tables (Publications No. 10; summaries in German, French and Italian).

BEYER, G. and J. J. OUDGEEST. Some Aspects of Migration Problems in the Netherlands; publ. by the Research Group for European Migration Problems. The Hague, M. Nijhoff, 1952. 52 pp., graphs, maps, tables (including: T. VAN DEN BRINK: Some Quantitative Aspects of Future Population Development in the Netherlands) (Publications No. 3).

PETERSEN, W. Some Factors Influencing Postwar Emigration from the Netherlands; publ. by the Research Group for European Migration Problems. The Hague, M. Nijhoff, 1952. 80 pp., graphs, maps, tables (Publications No. 6).

INFLUENCE, The, of Sickness Absenteeism on Labor Productivity in the Netherlands; publ. by COP, Netherlands Productivity Centre. The Hague, 1955. 16 pp., graphs (extract from the report 'De invloed van het ziekteverzuim op de arbeidsproductiviteit' publ. by the Netherlands Ministry of Social Affairs and Public Health).

SAFETY, Hygiene, Good Working Conditions in the Netherlands Factories and Workshops; publ. by the Netherlands Ministry of Social Affairs and the Netherlands Government Information Office. The Hague, 1950. 28 pp., ill.

SYSTEM, THE, of Wage Regulation in the Netherlands; translation of three articles publ. in the Svensk Sparbankstidskrift 1957. Contents: M. G. LEVENBACH: Wage Regulation in the Netherlands; S. RYDENFELT: Central Wage Control - Dutch Style; M. G. LEVENBACH: Some Economic Aspects of the Dutch Wage System.

WAGE Policy in the Netherlands; chapter publ. in 'National Wages Policy in War and Peace' by B. C. ROBERTS. London, Allen & Unwin, 1958. 17 pp.

POUS, J. W. DE. Le régime des salaires aux Pays-Bas; publ. by le Comité National Belge de l'Organisation Scientifique. Bruxelles, 1960. 23 pp. (Etudes et documents du CNBOS, série: Relations Humaines, No. 46.)

WINDMULLER, J. P. Postwar Wage Determination in the Netherlands; publ. by the New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations at Cornell University. New York, 1957. 13 pp.

PELS, P. S. La politique néerlandaise des salaires; publ. by la Société Belge d'Etudes et d'Expansion. Liège, 1955. 5 pp.

LEVENBACH, M. G. Collective Bargaining and Government Wage Regulation in the Netherlands. London, Stevens and Sons, 1953. 16 pp. (Reprinted from 'The Modern Law Review', October 1953.)

ZOETEWEY, B. National Wage Policy: the Experience of the Netherlands (International Labour Review, Geneva, No. 2, February 1955, p. 148).

GOTTLICHER, E. Lohnpolitik in den Niederlanden. (Gewerkschaftliche Monatshefte, Köln-Deutz, No. 10, October 1958, p. 615.)

PETIT, R. Le système hollandais de fixation des salaires: une expérience d'économie dirigée. (Revue Francaise du Travail, Paris, No. 4, 1954, p. 3.)

BAVINCK, J. G. The System of National Wage Control in Holland. (Personnel Management, London, No. 329, September 1954, p. 155.)

POUS, J. W. DE. Politique des salaires et des prix aux Pays-Bas. (Société Belge d'Etudes et d'Expansion, Liège, No. 177, August/October, 1957, pp. 887.)

FAMILY Allowances; publ. for the 11th General Meeting of the International Social Security Association, Paris, 1953. Geneva, 1954. 310 pp., table (Report II).

BRINELUX: enquête sur les salaires; situation en octobre 1958. Bruxelles, 1960. 96 pp., tables (Annexe de la Revue du Travail, publ. by the Ministry of Employment and Labour, March 1960.)

EVOLUTION des salaires et politique salariale dans les industries de la Communauté; publ. by the European Coal and Steel Community, High Authority, Luxembourg, 1959. 70 pp., tables. (Situation in 1958.)

EVOLUTION des salaires et politique salariale dans les industries de la Communauté 1945-1956; publ. by the European Coal and Steel Community, High Authority, Luxembourg, 1960. 348 pp. graphs, tables.

STEINMANN, G. und H. GOLDSCHMIDT. Gewerkschaften und Fragen des kollektiven Arbeitsrechts in Grossbritannien, Frankreich, Belgien, den Niederlanden und Italien. Stuttgart, Kohlhammer Verlag, 1957. 142 pp. (Schriftenreihe des Bundesministeriums, Vol. 5.)

Contemporary Collective Bargaining in Seven Countries; ed. by A. STURMTHAL; publ. by the Institute of International Industrial and Labor Relations. Ithaca, N.Y., Cornell University, 1957.

BHATTACHARYVA, H. P. A Study of the Development of the Position of Trade Unions in Great Britain and in the Netherlands for the period from 1945 to 1955. The Hague, 1959. 119 pp., bibliogr., tables (Thesis, Institute of Social Studies, The Hague.)

PELS, P. S. Industrial relations in the Netherlands; publ. by the Trade Union Information and Research Service, European Productivity Agency, Organization for European Economic Co-operation. Paris, 1951. 15 pp.

FOUNDATION of Labour; publ. by the Foundation of Labour. The Hague, 1955. 14 pp.

BRANDES, P. The Netherlands Labour Foundation; publ. by the Foundation of Labour. The Hague, 1955. 10 pp.

To Dwell Together in Unity; Labor-Management Relations in the Netherlands; publ. by the Netherlands Information Bureau, New York, 1948. 14 pp., ill. (Netherlands News Letter, Vol. III, No. 3.)

EIJK, N. W. A. van. Das Gesetz über die Unternehmungsräte. The Hague, 1950. 9 pp. (Reprint, translated into German, from: De Sociale Zekerheidsgids, Deventer, No. 12, June 1950, pp. 365.)

PUBLIC Health Administration in the Netherlands; law No. 51 of 18 January, 1956, embodying new legal provisions concerning the organization of the public health services (Health Law); included in: International Digest of Health Legislation; publ. by the World Health Organization. Geneva, 1957. 10 pp.

MUNTENDAM, P. Public Health in the Netherlands; 3rd printing; publ. by the Netherlands Government Information Service. The Hague, 1956. 24 pp., ill., 4th pr., English ed. 1960.

BANNING, C. Coordination between the Public Health Service and Private Enterprise in Holland; its results. A Chadwick public lecture delivered at the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, London, 14th February, 1950. London, The Chadwick Trust, 1950. 25 pp.

MATTIA, D. di. L'organizzazione economico-sociale in Olanda. Roma, Tipografia operaia Romana, 1954. 52 pp.

EXCERPT from the Netherlands Licensing Act with a Historical Survey; publ. by the Ministry of Social Affairs and Public Health. The Hague, 1955. 27 pp.

Loi sur les denrées alimentaires ('Sale of Food and Drugs Act') et décrets executifs; publ. by the Ministry of Social Affairs and Public Health, Information Dept., The Hague, 1955. 189 pp.

SOME Principles of Meat Hygiene in the Netherlands; publ. by the Chief Veterinarian Inspectorate of Public Health. The Hague, 1956. 13 pp., ill.

QUERIDO, A. Mental Health in the Netherlands; compiled by the National Federation for Mental Health in Co-operation with the Ministry of Social Affairs and Public Health. The Hague, 1954. 22 pp., ill., graphs, maps.

LEKKERKERKER, E. C. A. National Mental Health Society at Work. (World Mental Health, London, No. 2, May 1955, p. 92.)

ASSISTANCE aux rapatriés venus d'Indonésie. The Hague, 1960. 15 pp.

ASSISTANCE aux Amboinais. The Hague, 1958. 6 pp.

DOORN, J. A. A. van. Résumé du rapport final sur les régions en voie de développement aux Pays-Bas; paper on social problems. The Hague, 1960, 25 pp.

GOEDMAKERS, H. J. P. J. Provisions for the Old Aged in the Netherlands; summary of an exposition; together with some additional information. The Hague, 1960. 5 pp.

HAVERDA, J. L. 1: Les familles présentant des problèmes spéciaux aux Pays-Bas. 2: La méthode d'approche des familles présentant des problèmes spéciaux aux Pays-Bas. The Hague, 1960. 9 pp.

HENDRIKS, G. La fonction du travail social dans notre société; paper read at the meeting organized by the Dr. Wiardi Beckman Foundation, March 9, 1959. The Hague, 1959. 12 pp.

HENDRIKS, G. Planification sociale aux Pays-Bas dans les régions de développement et planification sociale dans les régions présentant des problèmes spécifiques. The Hague, 1961. 8 pp.

HENDRIKS, G. Social Problems of Urban Areas in Different Stages of Development and Possibilities of Using Community Development Principles and Methods of Solving Them; paper prepared for the European Seminar on Community Development and Social Welfare in Urban Areas, Bristol, 12-22 September, 1959. The Hague, 1959. 19 pp.

HENDRIKS, G. Travail social et territoires sous-développés; preliminary report on the use of study conferences of the E.E.C., relating to social work (held from July 15-20, 1960). The Hague, 1960. 13 pp.

HULSHOF, H. Community Organization, Community Planning and Community Development. The Hague, 1960. 22 pp.

LOON, P. C. J. van. Travail social, assistance sociale et responsabilité du gouvernement; évolution, détermination des lieux et plans de contact; paper read at The Hague at the 1958 Autumn Study Conferences organized by the Institute of Administrative Sciences, The Hague, 1960. 26 pp.

ORGANISATION, THE, of Assistance to Unmarried Mothers and Their Children. The Hague, 1916. 6 pp.

PRECIS de l'organisation et des tâches principales du Ministère de la Prévoyance Sociale. The Hague, 1960. 15 pp.

PROBLEMS of Socially Maladjusted Families in the Netherlands. The Hague, 1958. 15 pp.

RAPPORT intégration sociale des familles présentant des problèmes spéciaux; extract from the report of the 'Advisory Committee for Combating A-Social Behaviour'. The Hague, 1961. 10 pp.

THEORY and Practice of the Dutch Poor Law. The Hague, 1958, 4 pp.

STATISTICS IN BRIEF

Official name: Kingdom of the Netherlands (Koninkrijk der Nederlanden)

Reigning monarch: Juliana Louise Emma Wilhelmina, Queen of the Netherlands, Princess of Orange-Nassau

Government: Hereditary and constitutional monarchy; the Parliament, called the Staten-Generaal, consists of two Chambers

Seat of government: The Hague

Capital: Amsterdam

Parts of the Kingdom	Capital	Area in sq.km (1960)	Population (1.1.61)
----------------------	---------	-------------------------	------------------------

In Europe:

The Netherlands	Amsterdam	32,472	11,555,934
-----------------	-----------	--------	------------

a) Provinces

Groningen	Groningen	2,246	477,648
Friesland	Leeuwarden	3,240	479,863
Drente	Assen	2,619	314,429
Overijssel	Zwolle	3,255	783,360
Gelderland	Arnhem	5,006	1,287,824
Utrecht	Utrecht	1,323	686,568
North Holland	Haarlem	2,631	2,073,125
South Holland	The Hague	2,814	2,726,190
Zealand	Middelburg	1,710	283,912
North Brabant	's-Hertogenbosch	4,902	1,512,789
Limburg	Maastricht	2,219	894,341

b) North- East Polder

Eastern Flevoland	Emmeloord	501	28,758
Central population register	Lelystad		990

(persons having no fixed residence, living in caravans and houseboats, shipping population etc.)

Overseas parts:

a) Self-governing.

Surinam (31.12.58)	Paramaribo	142,822	246,000
Neth. Antilles (31.12.59)	Willemstad	961	196,110
Curaçao	Willemstad		127,840
Aruba	Oranjestad	872	58,868
Bonaire	Kralendijk		5,755
St. Martin	Philipsburg		1,537
St. Eustatius		89	1,016
Saba			1,094

b) Not yet self-governing

Neth. New Guinea (1959)	Hollandia	416,000	439,411
-------------------------	-----------	---------	---------

Municipalities with 100,000 inhabitants and over (1.1.61):

Amsterdam	866,342	Tilburg	138,546
Rotterdam	729,744	Nijmegen	131,593
The Hague	605,876	Enschede	126,122
Utrecht	256,332	Arnhem	124,818
Haarlem	169,497	Breda	108,658
Eindhoven	168,858	Apeldoorn	104,881
Groningen	146,301	Hilversum	101,985

Religion (1957):

Protestants 41 %, Roman Catholics 39 %, other creeds 4 %, no religion 16 %.

Money:

Guilder (Dutch: gulden) = 100 cents
Abbreviation: fls
fls 10.00 = Tientje fls 0.10 = Dubbeltje
fls 2.50 = Rijksdaalder fls 0.05 = Stuiver
fls 0.25 = Kwartje fls 0.01 = Cent

The total agricultural area (May 1960), in hectares, is:

2,317,232

Number of holdings (May 1960):

300,000

Average yield per hectare (1960):

Wheat	4,662 kg	Barley	4,233 kg
Rye	3,032 kg	Potatoes	28,428 kg
Oats	3,391 kg	Sugar beet	50,544 kg

Livestock (December 1960):

Cattle	3,228,000	Hens	32,995,000
Pigs	2,933,000	Sheep	263,000
Horses	177,000	Ducks	1,238,000

Agricultural products (1959):

in thousands of metric tons			
Meat	586	Butter	80
Eggs	299	Cheese	205
Milk (all milk products)	6,800	Condensed milk	340
		Milk powder	78

Fisheries (1960):

Quantity 288,489,000 kg

Horticultural products (1959):

in thousands of metric tons	
Vegetables (Salad, cabbage, peas, tomatoes, gherkins etc. and early potatoes)	1,071
Fruits (Apples, pears, plums, cherries, grapes etc.)	566

Flowers:

Tulips	134,000,000
Roses	93,000,000
Daffodils	49,000,000
Gladioli	33,000,000

Value of agricultural and horticultural produce (1959):

Agriculture	1,237 million guilders
Cattle-breeding	4,222 million guilders
Horticulture	1,065 million guilders

Production of raw materials and energy (1960):

Coal	12,498,000 metric tons
Electrical energy	16,394 million kWh.
Gas	3,762 million units
Crude petroleum	1,917,000 tons
Salt	1,095,000 tons

Commerce (1960):

in millions of guilders

Exports from the Nether-Imports into the Nether-lands to:			
lands to:	lands from:		
Germany (West)	3,452	Germany (West)	3,712
United Kingdom	1,676	United Kingdom	1,184
Belgium and Luxem-bourg	2,184	Belgium and Luxem-bourg	3,155
France	902	France	659
U.S.A.	743	U.S.A.	2,276

Turnover in some principal industries (1960):

in 100 millions of guilders	Total value	Exports
Chemical industry	52.6	26.85
Textile industry	28.77	10.07
Metal industry	106.13	38
Manufacture of foodstuffs	100.17	24.92

Communications

Railways (1.1.60): 3,229 km, of which 1,624 km are electrified.	
Main roads (1.1.58): 4,528 km.	
Navigable rivers and canals (1.1.60): 6,768 km.	
Mercantile marine (1.1.61): 1501 ships, 4676196 GRT 1.	
Goods transported in inland shipping (1959)	53,478,600 m. tons
International inland shipping (1959)	75,946,000 m. tons
Sea-going shipping (1960)	108,487,000 m. tons

Goods traffic in the Netherlands sea-ports (1960)

in thousands of metric tons	
Unloaded: Rotterdam	61,552
	Amsterdam 7,788
Loaded: Rotterdam	21,854
	Amsterdam 3,040

Passengers carried (1959)

Railways	187.3 million
Tram	268 million
Bus	658.9 million

Goods transported (1959)

in thousands of metric tons	
Railways	15,463
of which	9,112 international transport
Road	119,105
of which	8,805 crossing the Netherlands frontiers

The Digest of the Kingdom of
the Netherlands is a joint
compilation by all the Netherlands
Government Departments, the Governments
of Surinam and of the
Netherlands Antilles and has been
published by the Ministry of Foreign
Affairs.
Produced by the Netherlands Government
Information Service.

